The Construction of Intersubjectivity in Undergraduate EFL Class Activities

Jesús David Guerra Lyons

Universidad del Norte

Author note

Jesús David Guerra Lyons, Departamento de Lenguas, Universidad del Norte

This research is submitted in partial fulfillment of course requirements for the Master's Degree in English Language Teaching at Universidad del Norte.

Correspondence concerning this Master's dissertation should be addressed to Jesús David Guerra Lyons, Departamento de Lenguas, Universidad del Norte, Km.5 Vía a Puerto Colombia, Barranquilla- Colombia.

Contact: jdguerra@uninorte.edu.co

To my parents, Fermín Guerra and Nazly Lyons, and my brothers, Felipe and Víctor, for being an endless source of wisdom, inspiration and love throughout my life.

Acknowledgements

In submitting this Master's dissertation, I am deeply obliged to all the endeared professors at Universidad del Norte, whose guidance and support were instrumental in my formation as a Master's degree holder, special mention among whom deserves Pr. Jorge Mizuno Haydar for being my tutor in the preparation of this research. I would also like to acknowledge the course professor in whose class this research is based, for her gentle readiness to collaborate and offer her insights. Last but not least, my word of acknowledgement goes to my classmates at the Master's program in English Language Teaching at Universidad del Norte for making this an enlightening and enjoyable experience.

CONTENTS

Abstract

This case study explores the construction of intersubjectivity, defined as the joint creation of shared mental spaces during interaction, inside an undergraduate EFL writing class. Special focuses in this exploration are the achievement of shared understanding, the engagement of learners' and the teacher's perspectives along activity development; and the role of intersubjectivity in offering different forms of support. The rationale for exploring intersubjectivity lies in the relevance of understanding the way learners coordinate their cognitive capacities with each other and with the teacher, and so identifying the specific affordances and challenges that both types of interaction create. To this end, four activities within the writing unit of a skills-based undergraduate EFL course were observed and subsequently transcribed. Using theoretically generated and emergent categories of analysis, the transcripts were analyzed under the headings of achieving shared understanding, perspective-taking and supportive intersubjectivity. Preliminary findings were then triangulated with the teacher and the group of participants whose interaction was observed, using interviews, focal group discussions and stimulated recall techniques. Regarding the achievement of shared understanding, learners were found to focus especially on the joint comprehension of task procedures and target concepts, whereas the teacher emphasized procedures in her instruction, giving little emphasis to conceptualization. Distributed analysis of activity focus during the observed activities suggests that attention focused on procedural and conceptual aspects of the task alternated as the unit unfolded. The engagement, that is the degree of certainty inscribed in participants' pragmatic and linguistic choices, was lower in learner's joint knowledge construction. Learners were observed to be more deliberative and uncertain. Pragmatic demands in posing doubts to the teacher were hypothesized to decrease learners'

opportunity to engage in deliberative knowledge construction with the teacher. Comparative analysis of the knowledge co-construction actions in teacher-student and teacher-student interaction suggest that, in teacher-led knowledge co-construction is unidirectional, that is, it requires learners to obtain ready-made knowledge from the teacher. In contrast, learners' co-construction of knowledge relied more on each other's cognitive capacities, thus being more intersubjective. In regard to the engagement of teacher and learner perspectives throughout the unit, mismatches were observed between each other's conceptions of the task goal, the problems encountered and the satisfactors sought, the ongoing rules of the task and roles in interaction; all of which were hypothesized to constrain the achievement of intersubjectivity. In this aspect, the teacher's role as precursor of learner's awareness of their own beliefs was linked to a collective form of intersubjectivity creation. Finally, concerning supportive intersubjectivity, differences in the provision of cognitive, strategic and evaluative support were found between learners and the teacher, with learners being more aware of their peers' mental states at the moment of supporting each other. The findings in this study support the claims that, on the whole, teachers and learners construct intersubjectivity in different ways, and that it is important for teachers to position themselves in such a way that their culturally assigned higher status in interaction with learners does not thwart the construction of intersubjectivity.

Key words: activity, interaction, intersubjectivity, perspective engagement, shared understanding, support

Abstract

El presente estudio de caso explora la construcción de la intersubjetividad, definida como la creación de espacios mentales compartidos a través de la interacción, al interior de una clase de escritura en inglés como lengua extranjera a nivel de pregrado. Durante la investigación, se hizo énfasis en explorar el logro de la comprensión compartida, el compromiso entre las perspectivas del docente y la de los estudiantes durante el desarrollo de las actividades y el papel de la intersubjetividad en distintas formas de apoyo. La exploración de la intersubjetividad se justifica dada la relevancia de comprender la forma en que los aprendices coordinan sus capacidades cognitivas en la interacción con ellos mismos y con el docente, para así identificar las oportunidades y retos que cada tipo de interacción genera. Con este objetivo, fueron observadas y transcritas cuatro actividades de una unidad de escritura en un curso de inglés como lenguaje extranjera basado en habilidades. El análisis de las actividades transcritas se realizó desde categorías teóricas y emergentes, bajo las subcategorías de logro de la comprensión compartida, compromiso de perspectivas e intersubjetividad solidaria.

Los hallazgos preliminares fueron triangulados mediante la aplicación de entrevistas al docente; y grupos focales y técnicas de reminiscencia estimulada con los aprendices. En cuanto al logro de la comprensión conjunta, se encontró que los aprendices se enfocaron en los procedimientos de la tarea y los conceptos propios de la misma, mientras que el docente hizo énfasis en los procedimientos, tratando escasamente la conceptualización. Mediante el análisis del enfoque de la actividad distribuido en las actividades observadas se estableció que la atención en los aspectos procedimentales y conceptuales fue alternada a lo largo de la unidad. La fuerza, es decir, el grado de certidumbre inscrito por los participantes en sus

escogencias pragmáticas y lingüísticas, fue menor en la construcción conjunta del conocimiento por parte de los aprendices. Se observó que los aprendices manejaron mayor incertidumbre y deliberación en la construcción del conocimiento. Por otro lado, se formuló la hipótesis de que las exigencias pragmáticas a las que el estudiante se somete al momento de presentar una duda al docente disminuyen la posibilidad de sostener una construcción del conocimiento más deliberativa.

El análisis comparativo de las acciones de construcción conjunta del conocimiento en la interacción con el docente y con los aprendices sugirió que, con el docente, la construcción del conocimiento conjunto es aproximativa, es decir, requiere por parte de los aprendices la obtención del conocimiento ya listo a partir del razonamiento del docente. Por el contrario, en la construcción del conocimiento con otros aprendices, se hace mayor uso de las capacidades cognitivas del otro, siendo por ende esta construcción más intersubjetiva.

Respecto al compromiso entre las perspectivas del docente y los estudiantes, se encontró que existían disonancias entre las concepciones del objetivo de la tarea, los problemas identificados y los satisfactores a estos problemas, y las reglas de la tarea y los roles en la interacción; las cuales fueron relacionadas como limitantes al logro de la intersubjetividad. En este sentido, el papel del docente como precursor de la conciencia de los aprendices de sus propias creencias se relacionó como una forma conjunta de creación de intersubjetividad. Finalmente, en lo que concierne a la intersubjetividad solidaria, se hallaron diferencias en el ofrecimiento de apoyo cognitivo, estratégico y evaluativo entre los aprendices y el docente, siendo los aprendices más conscientes de los estados mentales de sus pares al momento de apoyarse.

Los hallazgos de este estudio permiten afirmar que, en general, existen diferencias en la construcción de la intersubjetividad entre docentes y aprendices, y que es importante para los docentes posicionarse de tal forma que su estatus superior culturalmente asignado no dificulte la creación de intersubjetividad con los aprendices.

Palabras clave: actividad, apoyo, comprensión compartida, interacción, intersubjetividad, perspectiva

The Construction of Intersubjectivity in Undergraduate EFL Class Activities

1. Introduction

Human beings' unique capacity to think through others and share common mental spaces has, from the very beginning of our history as a species, been the driver of learning and cultural evolution. In educational settings, and specifically in the English class, this capacity can be witnessed in the way teachers and learners jointly make sense of outer experience mediated by a second language, and transform it into collective inner experience as evidenced in later use of jointly constructed mediations during communication and learning tasks. Learning, indeed, rarely happens in isolation from others, as most sociocultural learning theory asserts (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978; Wertsch, 1979). However, the puzzle arises as to which role others play in our own way of making meaning of the world. The idea of peers and experts working supportively around the development of capacities has been extensively studied under sociocultural constructs such as ZPD, mediation, collaborative work, among others (Lantolf, 2000), leading to a wealth of insights into how this might occur. One useful way of complementing this inquiry is by linking the exploration of joint learning to constructs in related disciplines, such as social cognition, developmental psychology and cognitive psychology, which have also attempted to explore how people think and learn together. One of these constructs is *intersubjectivity*, originally emerging from philosophy, later embraced in psychology and more recently incorporated within sociocultural educational science (Rogoff, 1990; Rommetviet, 1985).

Intersubjectivity may be defined as the creation of shared mental spaces between individuals (Rogoff, 1990; Trevarthen, 1979), which means that individuals' mental capacities (including attention, reasoning and problem-solving) can be joined in achieving understandings and solving problems in a way that can exceed individual performance.

The concept of intersubjectivity may be useful in understanding learning which occurs when learners and teachers interact within second language classes, since it allows zooming into the micro processes through which minds are coordinated in joint activity. This might help detect which conditions favor intersubjective learning to occur, or which factors may hinder it from happening. It shall be asserted from the beginning of this paper that intersubjectivity is not a granted feature in human interaction. It may be lost, decreased or successfully maintained (Rommetviet, 1985). This means that, in order to ensure maximal achievement of mental coordination in language learning, the specific conditions leading to the emergence of intersubjectivity need to be studied. Such an exploration has already been undertaken in general educational science, suggesting that the existence of different mental perspectives during interaction can decrease intersubjectivity between participants (Matusov, 2001). It is a belief in this paper, however, that there is more to this issue than stating perspective mismatches as the main precursor of intersubjectivity loss. Other cultural, educational, social and political factors might have a role to play in the extent to which individuals can reach the degree of mental coordination characteristic of intersubjective engagement. This study thus sets out to explore this issue with the aim of exploring how teachers and learners construct intersubjectivity during undergraduate EFL class activities.

The exploration of intersubjectivity in EFL contexts such as Colombian undergraduate English classes, specifically in writing lessons, might shed some light into culturally specific ways of coordinating mental capacities, as well as specific societal variables which may promote or hinder intersubjectivity between learners and with the teacher in the learning of a second language. In this regard, Rosado's (2012) exploration of

contingent interaction in EFL classrooms is illustrative. Concerning the teaching of writing skills, exploration of intersubjectivity is even more relevant, since recent methodological views are attempting to make writing less of an individual activity, by including peer planning, group brainstorming, peer-reviewing and peer-edition into the process. However, attempts to introduce these forms of writing activity are often limited to having students sit together while writing. Understanding how learners jointly construct and maintain intersubjectivity might help the teacher better stage interaction between learners and with learners to make it more enriching for the writing process. One way to do this is by becoming aware of the content of students' "secret" conversations when the teacher is not present, which provide a window to the real objects of attention learners focus on while writing together with others.

Based on the rationale previously exposed, the central question guiding this study is: **How do learners and the teacher construct intersubjectivity in undergraduate EFL class activities?**

Considering the above question, the purpose guiding this study is to analyze teacher-student and student-student interaction during EFL undergraduate classes with a focus on participants' construction of intersubjectivity . In this analysis, emphasis is placed on how shared understanding is achieved in teacher-student and student-student interaction, the extent to which the teacher's and students' perspectives become engaged, and how different forms of support are offered. In achieving this purpose, the following objectives have been set:

1.1.Main objective

To explore the process through which learners and teachers construct intersubjectivity in EFL class activities.

1.2.Specific objectives

- To describe the process through which shared understanding is created in teacher-student and student-student EFL writing activities.
- To analyze the extent to which the teacher's and student's perspectives of the activity become engaged throughout unit development.
- To analyze the emergence of intersubjectivity in student-student and teacher-student support in EFL writing activity.

1.3.Context

The target population of this study was a group of undergraduate EFL learners at a private university in the Colombian Caribbean coast, who, at the time of the study, were in level seven of a skills-based EFL program addressed to students of different majors. Their level of proficiency is roughly equivalent to a B1 of the CEFR. Most of the participants are within 19-22 years of age and come from middle class families. From a larger group of 22 participants, the interaction of 5 randomly selected participants was observed. Being this a skills-based course, teachers are expected to focus on writing, reading, listening and speaking at different times during the semester. The observation here reported corresponds to the writing focus of this course, which main goal was to develop students' skills to write compare and contrast essays.

In the upcoming sections, the reader will first find an account of the main theoretical perspectives and constructs informing this study. Then, a description of the research methodology will be provided, featuring the analysis categories used. The results obtained are subsequently analyzed and discussed in the Findings and Discussion section. Finally, conclusions concerning the objectives of the study are presented.

2. Theoretical framework

In this section, an attempt is made to locate this study within a larger theoretical framework which is coherent with its purpose and aims. The key constructs addressed are also defined, both in theoretical and operational form, also in coherence with the larger framework to which this study claims adhesion.

2.1.Sociocultural Theory

This study can be located within a sociocultural perspective, which explains human behavior, thought and learning processes in terms of individuals' interaction with the larger social context. As Wertsch, Del Río and Álvarez (1995) assert, the goal of Sociocultural (SC) Theory is to "explicate the relationships between mental functioning […] and the cultural, institutional and historical situations in which this functioning occurs" (Wertsch, Del Río & Álvarez 1995, p.3). In other words, sociocultural theorists attempt to understand how human beings' outer social and cultural experience is transformed into inner experience through social interaction. This perspective implies that social interaction cuts across all areas of human activity, including the learning of first (and second) languages. In other words, SC theory holds that all learning is made possible only within a social structure that provides affordances, and supports the individual in grabbing them.

According to Sociocultural theory, human development and learning occur in two moments: first in a social plane, and then in an inter-psychological plane (Vygotsky, 1978). In first language acquisition, the social plane is represented by the interactions between children and their caregivers, which provide children with more and more elaborate signs to refer to their needs and states. Then, in the inter-psychological plane, children gradually internalize other people's language to direct their own behavior, in what is known as inner speech. In explaining how this transformation occurs, SC theory draws upon the concept of *mediation*, which refers to the resources that enable the passage of outer experience into inner experience (Wertsch, 1990). This mediation, according to Vygotsky (1978), occurs mainly through the use of tools and artifacts, interaction and the use of signs . In second language learning, three types of mediation are of special interest (Van Lier, 1996): mediation by others through social interaction, mediation by self through private speech, and mediation by artifacts (tasks and technology).

Of the three types of mediation above, mediation by others and by tasks seem the most directly connected to second language learning in institutional settings. According to Vygotsky (1978), interaction with more competent peers within a socially supportive structure is what propels the construction of new knowledge. It should be noted, though, that for learning to occur, those skills which are slightly above the individual's range of capabilities should be stimulated. Vygotsky called this range of yet non-acquired skills the *zone of proximal development*.

This study adheres to the general sociocultural conception that learning occurs through socially mediated communicative activity within a cultural context (Lantolf, 2000). In coherence with this, its central aim is to delve into group activity as one institutional

expression of socially mediated activity, rather than group activity as an instance of course methodology. This perspective enables a slow motion view of the social events occurring inside group activity, which often go unnoticed in the English class. Therefore, due to its primary interest in investigating social activity, the general theoretical framework this study subscribes to is sociocultural.

2.2.Intersubjectivity

One of the landmarks of modern linguistics is the realization that language, more than a rule-governed system of arbitrary signs, is mostly a semiotic system materialized in the interactions of participants involved in cultural and social contexts (Martin & White, 2005). Language has come to be conceived not only as a vehicle for communication, but also as a matrix of cultural and social norms, beliefs, assumptions, values and roles which human beings have agreed upon in hope of making sense of the world. Thus, the quest for understanding how language works has given prime importance to the contexts in which these social and cultural norms are enacted, negotiated and rebuilt. In other words, understanding language now implies understanding how human beings interact in culturally-mediated social contexts.

Early in the 20th century, Bakhtin (in Voloshinov, 1973) formulated the concept of *dialogism* to denote the fact that utterances, which he considered the central object of linguistics, were a "living dialectic synthesis between the psyche and ideology, between the inner and the outer" (p.40). For him, utterances were not only a product of subjective reasoning processes, but also a product of the speaker's adjustment to the ongoing communicative situation. This mutual adjustment of utterances constitutes a shared

construction of meaning in which interactants continuously infer the cultural and social demands at work. In other words, he considered communication not a subjective but an *intersubjective* process involving shared coordination of a common mental space. Such a view of communication largely contrasts with mentalistic definitions prevailing in his time (and to some extent today), in which human beings are assumed to process, produce and respond to messages in a subjective individual fashion (Zlatev, Racine & Sinha, 2000).

From the above, intersubjectivity can be defined both as a human capacity for engaging in dialogic activity with conspecifics (Trevarthen, 1974), and as a form of human interaction involving mutual management of mental spaces (Verhagen, 2005). The former perspective will be briefly presented here, and the latter will be expanded later on, for it is the one embraced in this study.

2.3.Intersubjectivity in human development

As a human capacity, intersubjectivity has been regarded as a distinctly human faculty of being aware of the subjectivity of others, which, in theory, sets it apart from non-symbolic subject-driven animal communication. Zlatev et al. (2000) define it as "the sharing of experiential content (e.g. feelings, perceptions, thoughts and linguistic meanings) among a plurality of subjects" (p. 1). In his longitudinal study of adult-infant interaction, Trevarthen (1974) concludes that babies' ability to establish an early mental connection with caregivers without any previous interactional experience or the acquisition of the semiotic mediation of language indicates an inborn capacity for drawing meaning from

gestures. This enacted nature of intersubjectivity implies a direct encoding of social meanings in body movements (e.g. gestures), without resort to mental representations of what those movements mean (Gallagher & Hutto, 2008). This inborn capacity is thought to be impaired in conditions such as autism (Hobson & Hobson, 2008).

As other human faculties, intersubjectivity goes through developmental stages, which Trevarthen (1979) called primary and secondary intersubjectivity. **Primary intersubjectivity** involves co-ordination of subjective states between two people (typically in face to face interaction) (Trevarthen & Hubley, 1978). This co-ordination implies having related mental states (both participants feeling angry, or one being upset and the other angry, etc.) (Hobson & Hobson, 2008). Susswein and Racine (2000) define primary intersubjectivity as a "dyadic interactional behavior in which interest or pleasure is manifested in interacting with the other" (p. 34). Thus, primary intersubjectivity involves the ability to read into other people's subjective states (i.e. feelings, emotions); and to adjust one's own states correspondingly. Although this stage has mostly being documented in early infant-caregiver interaction (Trevarthen, 1979; Trevarthen & Hubley, 1978), primary intersubjectivity remains in place throughout later social interactions (Stern, 1985). In other words, people's ability to read and adjust to the subjective states of others continues to be used and refined throughout lifetime social exchanges.

Whilst evidence suggests that the ability to read and react to other people's emotions is innate (Trevarthen, 1979), the next phase in human social development (**secondary intersubjectivity**) seems to emerge out of social mediation (Rommetviet, 1974). Secondary intersubjectivity involves joint **attention** to a shared object within pragmatic activities (e.g. the infant and the caregiver both attending to a toy within a game).

The emergence of joint attention triggers intent participation in object-oriented activity, which creates the communicative needs the infant will fulfill through language later on (Hubley & Trevarthen, 1979). Shared attention in object-oriented activity is thus a precursor to linguistic communication. In secondary intersubjectivity, the child becomes able to view others as intentional subjects, which presumes an ability to read into their goals. This goal-reading ability, as well as the ability to read subjective states acquired in primary intersubjectivity, remains an important element in human communication. It allows understanding of others in terms of their intentions within pragmatic contexts, which in turn, allows interpretation of the intentional meanings encoded in language.

Thus far, it has been stressed that the abilities formed in primary and secondary intersubjectivity remain in use throughout the rest of a typical individual's life. This line of thought continues to be developed for subsequent phases of human development.

After developing the abilities to coordinate subjective states and interpreting intentions in pragmatic contexts, individuals from around 4 years of age on begin representing others as mental agents (Trevarthen, 1979). This representation entails seeing others as likely to possess diverging mental states from one's own. This stage also implies an ability to understand the reasons why others act. The nature of this interpretation is, however, a matter of controversy. For some theorists (Zlatev et al. 2000), children form a theory of people's mind throughout their numerous interactions with a growing social circle. This theory of mind is assumed to be used as individuals attempt to make sense of other people's actions. This perspective has met abundant criticism. On one hand, it has been accused of lacking an account of how the so-called theory of mind connects to earlier phases of development (e.g. primary and secondary intersubjectivity) (Trevarthen &

Hubley, 1978). On the other hand, it is thought to provide an incomplete explanation of how individuals start developing the concept of "belief", by assuming that this concept is somehow taken for granted in children's development (Rommetviet, 1985).

Another theoretical position concerning how we come to understand the reasons underlying others' actions is known as the Narrative Practice Hypothesis (Matusov & White, 1996). NPH contends that our ability to understand others develops in assisted story-telling practices, that is, in situations in which adults guide children's attention towards the fictional or real narratives in stories. This assisted story-telling might take the form of a teacher reading a folktale to pupils in a classroom (as typical in Western culture), or happen inside less structured contexts (such as adults discussing community events in front of children). These narratives are assumed to provide children with accounts of subjects acting with intentions within pragmatic situations, and, through repeated exposure, end up forming a belief system of why others act. The NPH hypothesis seems more plausible than the theory of mind hypothesis, in that it establishes a connection with the cultural context from early child development.

Adopting a narrative perspective in later intersubjectivity development implies that, while relating to others, we do not only relate to their subjective states and intentions, but we also draw upon culturally-constructed narratives of people's intentional behavior. This ability underscores much of human beings' social interaction throughout our lives. In a sense, the notions of primary and secondary intersubjectivity and narrative ability are linked to the notions of pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence used in mainstream language teaching theory. Pragmatic competence is defined as the use of "conventional rules of language and manifestations of these in the production and interpretation of

utterances" (Van Dijk, 1977; p. 1997) and sociolinguistic competence is defined as "sensitivity to, or control of the conventions of language that are determined by the features of the specific [social] context" (Bachman & Palmer, 1982, p. 94).The early reading of others' intentions and goals constitutes the starting point of our ability to interpret and produce intentionally consistent utterances, or as Bachman and Palmer (1982) put it, to "interpret the illocutionary force of discourse" (p. 94). Likewise, the social narratives formed through childhood shape individuals' awareness of different ways of thinking and acting, and the significance of these in a social context. Primary and secondary intersubjectivity thus set the foundations for pragmatic competence, whilst early narrative ability triggers both pragmatic and sociolinguistic competence.

The previous parallel between intersubjectivity development and communicative competence underscores the relevance of intersubjectivity in understanding communicative behavior, including that in the L2. Linguistic interaction depends on our ability to interpret interlocutors' subjective states, intentions and goals, which are partly coded in their discourse choices (Van Dijk, 1977). Successful communication thus implies ready establishment of intersubjectivity at the primary, secondary and narrative levels. In the L2, the additional challenge is to establish these levels of intersubjectivity through a new language, with all the psycholinguistic demands that using an L2 involves. At the narrative level, cultural differences in making sense of the social world might as well pose a challenge. A new language brings within new forms of encoding power, status and distribution of roles. For this reason, understanding intersubjectivity in the L2 classroom might result in a clearer landscape of its sociocultural dynamics.

It has been argued that intersubjectivity is an inborn human capacity which undergoes at least three forms of development (primary, secondary and narrative) (Trevarthen, 1974; Trevarthen & Hubley, 1978). The abilities developed in these stages have been said to pervade throughout individuals' lifelong social interaction, including interaction in an L2.

2.4.Activity theory

Within the spectrum of sociocultural theories, **activity theory** is of particular interest for the aims of this study. Originally framed by Vygotskian disciples Leontiev (1981) and Luria (1981), activity theory holds that learning occurs within symbolically and culturally-situated activities directed at specific objects (Engeström, 1987). All forms of human activity are, thus, mediated and object-oriented. This mediation is offered by cultural artifacts, within which language occupies a prime position. Mediation refers to the enablement of a connection between external and internal experience, which facilitates internalization of inter-psychological experience. The object-orientedness of activity refers to the fact that humans are driven towards concrete objects, which materialize into specific operations, in order to fulfill their biologically or culturally dictated needs. Ëngelstrom (2001) defines the following components of activity:

The subject: the individual whose needs are defined by a historical and cultural background, and is capable of participating from the environment in agency, that is, in autonomous determination of his actions.

The outcome: which refers to the desirable end product of an activity, being the satisfactor of the subjects' needs. Pursuit of the outcome guides the subjects' actions through a set of **operations** realizable from the mediations available.

The tools: refer to the material or symbolic mediations which enable the subject to carry out the operations leading to the achievement of the outcome. These mediations include material artifacts (technologies) as well as symbolic artifacts (language, art)

The community: includes all participants sharing a common outcome within a situated material and spatial setting, such as the classroom.

Rules: refer to the enactment of community shared values through a tacit or express consensus on ways of acting, which determine the way an outcome can or cannot be pursued inside the community.

Division of labor: the way functions, roles and exchanges are agreed upon, assigned and maintained inside the community, which obeys the existing rules and culturally-embedded constructs shared by it.

The elements in the activity theory framework interact dialectically to shape the object of attention focused by subjects, in what is known as activity system (Ëngelstrom, 1999). Thus, in order for a subject to fulfill a given need through a specific object, he or she needs to avail from the tools afforded by the environment which, in turn, determine the way rules are established and labor is distributed inside the community. The interactions and contradictions between these elements within an activity system are what eventually drives human learning in culturally and socially situated experience.

Inside a community, participants may be engaged in overtly similar behaviors which, nevertheless, are oriented to different outcomes (Lantolf, 2000). For instance, inside a classroom community, students engaged in the action of repeating what the teacher says may be oriented to totally different outcomes, such as training pronunciation, empathizing with the teacher by demonstrating compliance, boasting their pronunciation skills or ensuring acceptance by other peers. Likewise, a similar outcome might be pursued through different operations. In learning a particular vocabulary set, for example, learners might choose to use the dictionary, rely on own context-driven inference, engage in extensive rote practice or applying new words in conversation. Choice of the operations to pursue a particular goal are largely defined by the individual's own cultural historical experience. Besides, subjects' goals might change as the activity unfolds (Ëngelstrom, 1987). Someone initially driven by a genuine language learning aim might, for instance, adopt a different motive halfway through the learning process as new needs emerge (e.g. the need of having a good academic score). All this variability accounts for the complexity of culturally and socially situated activities, and the consequential unpredictability of their outcomes.

Sociocultural studies of classroom interaction have found that variability in students' outcomes, goals and motives challenges curriculum and teacher-mandated goals, leading to unexpected, and even contradictory outcomes. Matusov (2001) found that learners often reconfigured task rules and divisions of labor according to their own interpretations of the tasks assigned by the teacher. Thorne (2005) reports on subjects' repositioning of their roles in face of cognitively challenging task demands, leading to outcomes different to those proposed by the teacher researcher. This is why, according to Lantolf and Thorne (2005), the focus of classroom research should not be the task (the

teacher specified blueprint of actions to carry out), but the activity (learners' actual enactment of their agencies through the task).

Activity theory offers a useful way of analyzing language learning experience in the classroom. In group activities specifically, the researcher may want to analyze how learners' interaction reflects alignment or disalignment with teacher's goals, how rules and the division of labor are negotiated, and how learners' use (or failure to use) the mediations at hand approaches them to their outcomes. Particularly, for the purposes of this study, activity theory provides a sociocultural framework for observing how intersubjectivity is achieved in the process of regulating a group activity inside a learning community.

Hopefully, the theoretical discussion so far has succeeded at situating this study inside a sociocultural perspective, regarding both its general conception of human learning and the specific aspects of group activity under research. The discussion now proceeds to the issue of intersubjectivity and its outer expressions in social interaction.

2.5.Intersubjectivity and shared understanding

Mercer (2000) calls inter-thinking the "joint co-ordinated activity which people regularly accomplish using language" (p.45). This coordinated activity requires the creation of context between participants. Context refers to the background information that interlocutors use to make sense of each other's ideas. This information may come from shared experience, shared tasks or goals or past experiences in similar types of conversation. Inter-thinking requires the joint creation of context, that is, the provision of missing clues when contextual mismatches exist. In carrying out a specific type of communicative exchange, speakers (often tacitly) agree on rules as to how that particular

exchange should unfold (e.g. who asks questions and who responds, which degree of familiarity speakers are allowed to express, etc.)

Mercer (2000) calls these rules "conversational ground rules" (p.67) .Successful inter-thinking requires subjects to have a *shared frame of reference*, that is, to have common knowledge of the ground rules and values woven into the interactional exchange.

Sometimes, speakers in a position of authority fail to cooperatively familiarize interlocutors with the conversational ground rules and contextual information at work during interaction, which can lead to communicative failure.

In building shared understanding, speakers must ensure that there is a balance between the new and shared information, between the given and the new (Atkinson, 1994). This contextualization can be achieved by relying on past experience. In school settings, it is teacher's job to ensure connections between new and given knowledge. To do this, they employ techniques such as recaps, repetitions and reformulations which bring relevant previous experience back into learners' mind (Mercer, 2000). Other features of interaction can also aid contextualization, including the use of cohesive devices and the very structure of words and sentences, which carry within the meanings of previous language users (Barnes & Todd, 1995). Contextualization is an important feature of intersubjective thinking, since it allows interactants to share similar frames of reference from which to reach common understanding.

Knowledge construction is, by essence, an argumentative pursuit (Verhagen, 2005). In collectively building knowledge, ways of categorizing and shaping reality are exposed to people's consideration as a means to achieve purposes and, sometimes, satisfy interests. Argumentation can occur through rhetorical techniques, such as those used by public

speakers, or through the choice of particular ways of expression (metaphors) which entail particular frames of reference. Issues of power and control emerge in argumentation, with compliance to specific conversational ground rules assigning more or less relative power to the speakers involved (Mercer, 2000). Often, the individual with more power can shape the less powerful individual's thinking to fit their own way of representing reality. This can happen in professional-client interactions, courtrooms, hospitals and, of course, in schools between teachers and students. At times, refusal to establish intersubjectivity between participants while still respecting the ground rules at work might lead to a tacit form of uncooperative exchange (Edwards, 1997).

Argumentation in knowledge construction could happen in three formats: cumulative talk, disputational talk and exploratory talk (Mercer, 2000). In cumulative talk, individuals align with each other's arguments uncritically, which helps build a shared identity between them. In disputational talk, individuals are unwilling to be intellectually engaged by each other's arguments and compete to demonstrate their own truth. Exploratory talk is characterized by an objective search of truth, as seen in the justified dissent or consent towards each other's positions. In practice, these argumentation styles can overlap.

In the language classroom, the notion of argumentation in knowledge construction is relevant, since, in order to shape students' understanding of specific concepts, teachers may intentionally or not exercise persuasion over students, and these may be convinced or not by the teacher's arguments. The existing ground rules of the classroom, in which teachers traditionally possess higher power and exert higher control of the interaction, may be respected by students, but still they may refuse to engage intersubjectively with the

teacher, thus remaining unaffected in their way of thinking or categorizing reality. Teachers also often refuse to engage with learners as thinking partners, and mentally represent them as empty pots to be filled in with knowledge. Such a vision might impair the teacher's appreciation of students' previous experiences or knowledge, which could result in less constructive learning.

2.6.Engagement, graduation and intersubjectivity

Representatives of Systemic Functional Linguistics, among whom Martin and White occupy a prominent position nowadays, deal with the issue of intersubjectivity, specifically from the concept of engagement. Martin and White define engagement as "all those locutions which provide the authorial voice to position itself to, and hence to "engage with" the other voices and alternative positions construed as being in play in the current communicative event" (Martin & White, 2005,p. 94). The concept of engagement is relevant to the purpose of this study, since it addresses one of its objectives, which is to explore whether the teacher's and students' perspectives of the activity system components become engaged, and if so, to which extent and with which outcomes. Martin and White's treatment of engagement and graduation is fairly wide. However, this study focuses on the following elements:

Alignment: refers to the "agreement-disagreement with respect to both attitudinal assessments and to beliefs or assumptions about the nature of the world, its past history and the way it ought to be" (Martin & White, 2005, p. 95). In other words, alignment measures the degree to which an individual agrees with a specific perspective, as reflected in their discourse choices. In this study, a superficial though illustrative analysis of alignment

between the teacher's and students' perspectives is performed, focusing on both their class interaction and their comments from the post-observation stage.

Projection: entails reporting another person's words or thoughts, which according to Halliday and Matthiessen represents the "the logical-semantic relationship whereby a clause comes to function not as a direct representation of (non-linguistic) experience but as a representation of a (linguistic) representation" (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004, p.441). Projection can be useful the exploration of perspective engagement and intersubjectivity because it indicates whose, if anyone's, perspective is being used to guide and regulate learning in EFL class activities.

Although, as has been said, the treatment of engagement from Systemic Functional Linguistics in this study is superficial (considering all the categories and variants left out), it can still shed some light into the processes through which perspectives become engaged or disengaged throughout the development of class activities. This, in turn, helps to understand better how teachers and learners jointly create and manage mental spaces during the learning process, an issue central to intersubjectivity.

2.7.Supportive intersubjectivity

Support could, in lay sense, be defined as the provision of help to someone who is experiencing difficulty during an activity. For Vygotsky, support is a major driver of human development. He defines his central concept of ZPD as the distance between independent performance and performance with support of an expert (Lantolf, 2000; Vygotsky, 1978). In analyzing support, three components can be identified: the supporter

(someone capable and willing to offer support), the supportive intervention and the beneficiary of the support (also known as the novice).

In the school setting, the role of the supporter is typically assumed by the teacher or the peers. Forms of teacher-derived support, such as scaffolding, instructional conversation and dynamic assessment have been found to stimulate zones of proximal development and promote second language acquisition by gradually assisting learners towards autonomous language performance (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994; Davin & Donato, 2013). Peer-derived support in student-student interaction has also been found beneficial for language acquisition. Donato (1994), for instance, observed collective scaffolding in student-student interaction.

Besides possessing the capacity to offer support, a supporter also needs to have disposition to do it. For a learner to be willing to help another, two basic conditions could be considered: first, that there is some shared ground out of which interest in the other's successful performance arises; and second, that the supporter recognizes the other's mental states so as to be able to provide the right doses of support . The concept of **intersubjectivity** could be useful in explaining these conditions. Intersubjectivity, defined as the existence of a common mental ground upon which participants can relate to each other's subjective states (Swain, Kinnear & Steinmann, 2011), could be the reason underlying peer's disposition to help one another, even when their capacity to support is not complete.

Three forms of intersubjectivity have been identified: primary, secondary and what Matusov (2001) denominates tertiary intersubjectivity. Primary intersubjectivity refers to

the existence of a shared attentional state in which awareness of the subjective states of the other is mutual (Trevarthen, 1979). In the context of EFL activities, common subjective states experienced when in difficulty are confusion and frustration. These subjective states can be embodied, or enacted, in gestures; or inscribed directly or indirectly in linguistic choices. Secondary intersubjectivity involves the ability to recognize other people's motives or goals (Trevarthen, 1979). The recognition of others' actions as goal-oriented originates from continuous observation of individuals in pragmatic activity, which provides a background for inferring people's goals. Tertiary intersubjectivity involves what Tomasello, Kruger and Ratner (1993) define as the recognition of others as reflective agents, that is, as subjects capable of sharing mental states and reflecting upon them. Joint activity of the type analyzed here seems to trigger the intersubjectivity needed for peers to be willing to offer and receive support from one another.

A third element in this conceptual framework is the type of support offered. This depends on the type of difficulty encountered. In EFL activities, these difficulties might relate to the contents of the tasks (e.g. the concepts involved, the language forms required), to the operations and conditions of the task (language, instructions, submission deadline, product) or to assessing the correctness or appropriateness of the performed actions. Here, these types of difficulties are addressed through cognitive, strategic and evaluative support, respectively.

3. Methodology

3.1.Research paradigm

In this section, the research paradigm and design, data collection procedures and instruments and data analysis procedures are explained. This information should provide an idea of how an answer is given to the central question guiding this study, which is: **How do learners and the teacher construct intersubjectivity in undergraduate EFL class activities?**

The emphasis on describing intersubjectivity as a process based on the observation and interpretation of learners' interaction in a naturalistic setting defines this study as social constructivist qualitative research. According to Crotty (1998), social constructivist research is characterized by its reliance on participants' meanings, consideration of participants' historical and cultural context and an inductive emergent treatment of information. These characteristics are congenial with the type of research here proposed. First, the interpretations constructed here are grounded on the behaviors actually observed in participants, and use their views to make meaning of those behaviors. Also, insights and conclusions in this study emerge from the ongoing analysis of the observed phenomena, rather than being deducted from pre-set categories.

3.2.Research design

The nature of the research undertaken in this study makes it compatible with a case study research design. According to Richards (2003), a case study is the scrutiny of a specific unit, which is part of a larger whole, with the aim of shedding light into a particular phenomenon. The unit can be an individual, a small group, a school, a district or a country.

There are some distinguishing features that set case study apart from other qualitative research traditions (e.g. ethnography, phenomenology, narrative). First, case studies are bounded, that is, they delineate a specific population within a larger universe (for instance, level seven learners doing a skills-based EFL course at a private Colombian university). It is not necessary to prove that the selected case is typical or representative of the larger class of cases it is claimed to belong to. Instead, the researcher needs to argue that the selected case, in itself, is unique enough to deserve a closer look (*intrinsic case study*); or that the selected case can help understand a broader issue (*instrumental case study*) (Stake, 1995). This study belongs to the latter type, since its goal is to observe a specific case of EFL undergraduate class as a platform for examining the larger issue of intersubjectivity in group activity.

A second distinguishing feature of case studies is their study of phenomena in the natural contexts of their occurrence (Richards, 2003). Case studies do not modify the unit of research in any significant way in order to prove a theory (as experimental research does). Instead, they focus on providing rich descriptions of observed phenomena, either from the categories that emerge from the observation, or with aid of initial guiding categories which are refined as the observation evolves. In this study, no modifications were made to the context. The researcher was also careful in limiting the impact of his presence in group activities by keeping interaction with participants during observation to a minimum. In this way, it was expected that learners would not significantly alter the aspects of interaction under study, and more reliable insights into the nature of intersubjectivity could be reached.

A third distinctive feature of case studies is triangulation, which means the use of multiple data sources as a means to validate interpretations of the observed phenomena (Hinkel, 2011; Stake, 1995; Yin, 1997). As explained in the data collection procedures section, this study resorts to non-participant observation, interviews with key informants, focal groups and stimulated recall as means to explore intersubjectivity from different perspectives. The purpose is to provide a rich picture of this complex phenomenon, which integrates both researcher's interpretation and that of the participants.

Depending on their purpose, case studies can be exploratory, descriptive or explanatory (Yin, 2009). Exploratory case studies precede a main study of an issue, and serve as testing of its parameters and procedures. Descriptive case studies "deliver as complete a description as possible of the relevant phenomena in their context" (Hinkel, 2011, p. 211). Explanatory case studies aim to generate a possible explanation of the observed phenomena. This study lies on a continuum between descriptive and explanatory case study research, for its aim is both to describe in detail the phenomenon of intersubjectivity, and to provide as much explanatory interpretation of its expressions as possible.

Finally, considering the size of the population studied, this has been designed as a single case study. Single case studies seek to "understand a rare or unique event or reveal something of importance (or more contentiously, to test a theory)" (Richards, 2003, p. 211), whereas multiple case studies set out to contrast two or more different contexts to test the replicability of the findings. In this case, relatability of findings across contexts is not sought, but a holistic understanding of a phenomenon from one context.

To sum up, this study has been designed as an instrumental descriptive single case study in which the researcher assumes a non-participant observer role in order to understand the way intersubjectivity is constructed in group activity. This research design allows intensive exploration of the phenomenon over a relatively short period of time. However, it has potential limitations. The observations made by the researcher might not directly relate to other similar contexts, thus not being generalizable. Besides, all the nuances involved in intersubjective construction might fail to be captured because of the need to focus on specific groups in each observation. Therefore, there is no pretension of providing a conclusive account of intersubjectivity construction, but a situated perspective on a complex multifaceted issue.

3.3.Participants

As mentioned in the introduction, the class observed in this research was made up of 21 middle-class 19 to 21-year old students in level seven of a skills-based EFL program, whose level of competence was roughly between A2 and B1 in CEFR. From this larger group, a sample of five participants was randomly selected. In this dissertation, the participants are known with the initials of their pseudonyms: *Christian* (*C*), *Francisco* (*F*), *Lucía (L), Marcela (M)* and *Pablo (*P*)*. Through the application of a questionnaire at the beginning of the observation cycle, general profiles of participants' prior English learning experience and attitudes towards group work was elaborated. These profiles are presented next:

Christian (C) is a 21-year-old architecture student. Regarding his previous learning experience, he claims to have learnt most of the English he knows at school. He considers

his level of English good, and he affirms that writing is the skill he is best at. He reports his English learning to have been focused on the grammatical aspect. For him, communicating in English is important in his current live, and it will continue to be important in his future life since he plans to do his master's degree in England. He responds that most of the English learning activities he has participated in have been in small groups. At the beginning of the course, he affirmed liking to work in groups of 5 or more members, because that "stimulates students' attention". His claimed attitudes towards group work were fairly positive. He affirmed he is always comfortable working with others, that group work is more productive than individual work, that group learning is always better than individual learning and that his contribution to group work is always valuable.

Francisco (F) is an 18-year-old Business Administration student. He affirms to have learnt English in an English course, his current level of English being good in his regard. According to him, listening is the skill he is best at, although his English learning has mostly focused speaking. For him, the learning of English is and will continue to be important for him, because in his professional practice as an administrator, he wants to be able to do business with people from abroad. He considers pair work to his preferred working arrangement, because he can debate and understand more quickly. His attitudes toward group work are rather positive. He almost always feels comfortable working with others, and he considers group work to be as productive as individual work.

Lucía (L) is a 17-year old Mechanical Engineering student who affirms having learnt English mostly by herself. She perceives her level as good, and considers listening comprehension her most developed skill. For her, communicating in English is important and will be very important in the future work life. Most of her previous experience has

been in pair work, but she prefers working in groups of five or more members because "there is variety of ideas and skills". Her attitudes towards group work are positive, with group work being more productive than individual work in her opinion. However, she thinks her contribution to group work is occasionally valuable.

Pablo (P) is an 18-year-old Business Administration student who claims to have learnt most of the English he knows by himself. He reports having a good level of English, and being better at reading comprehension. He considers learning English unimportant currently, but he thinks it will be important for him during his professional practice. Most of the learning activities he recently participated in were individual, and he prefers to work in pairs. His attitudes towards group work are mixed. Although for him group work is more productive than individual work, he only feels comfortable working in groups occasionally.

Marcela (M) is a 20-year-old Psychology student whose English learning has mostly been self-taught. She considers her English level fair, with speaking being her most proficient skill in her opinion. For her, English is important currently and will be important in the future because it allows international communication. Before this course, she had mostly worked in individual activities, although she prefers working in groups of 3 or 4 members. Her attitudes towards group work are positive. She agrees that group work is better than individual work and her ideas almost always being accepted by other group members.

3.4.Data collection procedures

In this section, a description of the data collection process is presented, including a justification of the selected data collection techniques applied in order to approach the three research objectives set. The following data collection techniques were applied:

Questionnaire: defined as a set of questions designed by the researcher to obtain relevant information from the study participants (Yin, 2009), questionnaires need to be organized around categories which relate to the research objectives. In this case, the application of a structured questionnaire was aimed to know about participants' previous language learning experience and, most importantly, their perception of group activities. This latter aspect allowed the researcher to locate key participants prior to observation, whose interaction was audiotaped and transcribed for analysis purposes. (See Questionnaire in Appendix)

Non-participant observation: in this data collection technique, the researcher enters the research field without participating from the activities therein. The aim of this technique is for the researcher to be able to capture the events in the field as they naturally happen in that context (Yin, 2009). In this case, the researcher observed another teacher's classes without intervening in the class interaction observed. Videotaping and audio-recording were used to record teacher-student and student-student interaction. The video tapes and audio-recordings correspond to a writing unit consisting of four one-hour lessons. The video tapes and audio recordings were subsequently transcribed using transcription conventions.

Focal group discussion: After transcribing and analyzing the observed material, the researcher called the focused participants to a focal group discussion, which, according to Richards (2003) involves group discussion around a particular subject with the aim of deepening its comprehension from the hermeneutic views of the participants. In this case, the subject to explore was participants' perceptions of their interaction with each other and with the teacher, and their perceived effectiveness of those interactions in providing shared understanding and support.

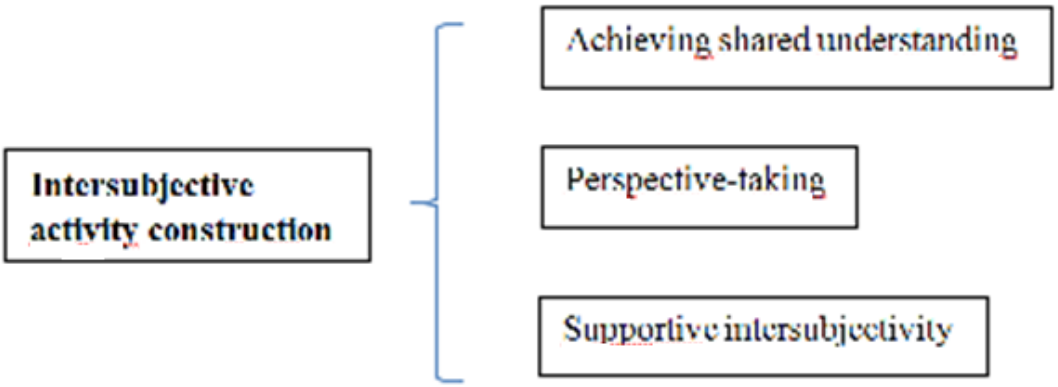
Interview: for triangulation purposes, the researcher also applied an interview to the teacher, focusing on the most outstanding findings from the analysis. When in an interview, according to Yin (2009), it is important for the researcher not to guide the interviewee towards confirmation of his conclusions, but to be open to different perspectives which the interviewee might bring into discussion. The nature of the interview was thus semi-structured, in that some of the questions had been previously prepared and others emerged from the teacher's responses.

Stimulated recall: Richards (2003) defines stimulated recall as a data collection technique in which the participants watch or hear themselves in videotapes or audio-recordings, and try to remember aspects of the situation which the researcher might bring into attention, or spontaneously recall without the researcher's intervention. In this case, participants were allowed to freely recall the recorded events, answering a few clarifying questions by the researcher. In this way, it was possible to obtain participants' interpretation of the observed activities and contrast them with that of the researcher.

3.5.Analytical categories and procedure

Once observational and interview-derived data are collected, analysis of these data from the perspective of intersubjectivity is performed. For this, audio recordings of observed group activities and participant interviews were transcribed. Transcripts of observation recordings are subsequently analyzed within the general category of **intersubjective activity construction.**

Intersubjective activity construction is operationally defined as the process through which participants in an EFL activity rely on each other's mental capacities to make sense of the ongoing learning experience. This process is evidenced in the way participants achieve shared understandings and make joint decisions as the activity evolves. Intersubjective activity construction is subdivided into three categories: **achieving shared understanding, perspective-taking** and **supportive intersubjectivity.**



3.5.1. Achieving shared understanding

Achieving shared understanding refers to the process through which participants turn incomplete or missing knowledge into mutually shared knowledge by jointly making sense

of a specific concept or procedure. Achieving shared understanding was observed to happen in at least two moments: signaling missing knowledge and co-constructing knowledge.

3.5.1.1.Signaling missing knowledge

Signaling missing knowledge involves drawing another participant into a common object of attention with the aim of initiating shared understanding construction. In the analysis of signaling missing knowledge, two aspects are analyzed: focus and engagement.

Focus

In achieving shared understanding, focus refers to the specific object of attention towards which a participant directs other participants' attention at given moments of the task. Rather than remaining constant throughout activity development, the focus is constantly changing as participants coordinate each other's attention (Ëngelstrom, 1987). In the observed tasks, the following focus types were identified:

- **Conceptualization:** the act of assigning attributes to an object with the aim of distinguishing it from other objects (e.g. birds have two legs, two wings, feathers and they lay eggs).
- **Procedure:** the specific operations that need to be carried out in completing a task or achieving a particular aim.
- **Task conditions:** the technical requirements under which the task needs to be carried out, including time, instructions, language, means of submission, level of completeness, etc.
- **Task purpose:** the aim that motivates the execution of a task.

- **Language:** the formal features of the activity target language (vocabulary, grammar, syntax, morphology, etc.).

3.5.1.2.Co-constructing knowledge

Once concurrence into a shared attentional space has been achieved, task participants engage in jointly finding answers to the incomplete or missing knowledge signaled. In analyzing how knowledge co-construction occurs, the following functions were identified: .

Functions

- **Exchanging knowledge:** communicating prior knowledge concerning the object of attention.
- **Arguing:** defending an own belief concerning the object of attention while totally or partially refusing to accept the other participant's belief.
- **Guiding:** supporting another participant in noticing a specific aspect of the attentional object.
- **Hypothesizing:** elaborating a tentative affirmation about the attentional object using available information or knowledge.
- **Appraising:** assigning a value to an aspect of the attentional object based on an officially or tacitly agreed criterion.
- **Affirming:** stating something about the attentional object with a high degree of certainty.
- **Directing attention**: switching another participants' attention towards another aspect of the attentional object or to a different object.

- **Inquiring:** formulating a question about the attentional object.
- **Responding:** answering a question about the attentional object.
- **Acquiescing:** showing uncritical acceptance of someone's view, sometimes concealing disagreement or non-comprehension.
- **Drawing conclusion:** using a previous statement to formulate a new statement.
- **Negotiating:** attempting to arrive at a compromise between opposing views or beliefs.

3.5.2. Perspective-taking

Perspective-taking refers to the degree of engagement between the teacher's and learners' perspectives concerning the following components of Ëngelstrom's (2001) activity theory framework:

- *Task goals:* the objectives which participants assign to the task.
- *Problems and satisfactors:* the difficulties encountered during task performance and the way they were primarily solved.
- *Rules:* the norms which regulate task performance and the social interaction between the participants.
- *Roles:* the division of labor among task participants.

In perspective-taking, another aspect analyzed is participants' reports of the speech of others, which is known as projection (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004). Projection can be:

- *Mental:* the thoughts, feelings or mental states of others are reported.
- *Verbal:* the speech of others is reported.

3.5.3. Supportive intersubjectivity

Supportive intersubjectivity covers the different forms of support participants provide to and seek in each other which rely on the ability to read the mental states of others. In this analysis, the following types of intersubjective support are considered:

- *Cognitive support:* support which mediates knowledge construction .
- *Strategic support:* support addressed to fixing procedural difficulties.
- *Evaluative support:* appraising the quality of a participant's work.

3.6. Category summary

<table>
<tr><th colspan="4">1. Achieving shared understanding</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Signaling missing knowledge</td><td colspan="2">Co-constructing knowledge</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">FOCUS</td><td colspan="2">ACTION</td></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Content
Task conditions
Task purpose
Conceptualization
Procedure
Language</td><td colspan="2">Exchanging knowledge
Arguing
Guiding
Hypothesizing
Appraising
Affirming
Directing attention
Responding
Inquiring
Acquiescing
Drawing conclusion
Negotiating</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">2. Perspective-taking</th></tr>
<tr><td colspan="2">Projection</td><td colspan="2">Activity component</td></tr>
<tr><td>Mental</td><td>Verbal</td><td rowspan="2" colspan="2">Task goal
Problems
Satisfactors
Rules
Roles</td></tr>
<tr><td>Learners
Teacher
Self</td><td>Learners
Teacher
Self</td></tr>
<tr><th colspan="4">3. Supportive intersubjectivity</th></tr>
<tr><td>Source</td><td>Type</td><td>Requested support</td><td>Offered support</td></tr>
<tr><td>Teacher
Learners</td><td>Question
Seeking opinion
Comment</td><td>Cognitive
Strategic
Evaluative
Affective</td><td>Cognitive
Strategic
Evaluative
Affective</td></tr>
</table>

4. Findings and discussion

In this section, an attempt to answer the research question set for this study is made, using the conceptual tools outlined in the theoretical references and categories emerging from the data collected. Key categories to be focused in this findings report are achieving shared understanding, perspective taking and supportive intersubjectivity. This data analysis is based on the observation and transcript of four EFL group activities, as well as on the teacher interview, the focal group discussion and stimulated recall techniques applied after observation.

Before analyzing these aspects of intersubjectivity construction, a brief description of the four activities observed is provided. It shall be reminded that the notion of activity entertained in this study comes from Activity Theory, thus being defined as a goal oriented sequence of operations performed by individuals within a culturally regulated community (Ëngelstrom, 1987). Thus, the activities described below correspond to a single task (that of writing a compare and contrast essay), but they are assumed to be guided by different goals (or motives).

Activity 1 occurs at the beginning of the observed unit. The main goal guiding it seems to be for learners to make sense of the task input (the medicine types to be compared and contrasted), and for the teacher to orient learners into the procedural requirements of the task. During this activity, the observed learners strive to find interesting comparisons between the medicine types and debate upon their distinct interpretations of the input. The teacher, on the other hand, takes advantage of her exchanges with students to remind them

of using the mediations available in the book (the model, the chart of paragraph styles, the readings).

During Activity 2, some of the observed learners had already begun drafting their essays while others were still hesitant about the comparisons they wanted to make. The feeling of an approaching deadline had probably rushed them into writing their papers without fully understanding the writing skills involved in the task (point-by-point and block writing). The general goal learners seemed to pursue during this activity was putting their ideas into a draft, relying more on their previous knowledge of English writing than on the new skills targeted by the unit. Noticing this trend, the teacher suggests learners to stop writing and review the target skills and concepts. Her goal still seems to be orienting learners towards these procedural skills.

Activity 3 mostly consists of learners reviewing and editing their first drafts. For the most part, their goal seems to be assessing the correctness of their comparisons and contrasts, failing to consider the target skills the teacher had emphasized. This tendency to disregard target skills led the teacher into inquiring learners about their previous writing experience to make them aware of the specificities of these skills. Her goal, therefore, seems to be raising learners' awareness of their ongoing writing process in order for them to use the skills targeted in the unit.

Finally, in Activity 4, the teacher decides to provide skill-focused instruction to make learners aware of the peculiarities of compare and contrast essays. In response, some learners notice the gap between the teacher's expectations and their draft, and assess it negatively. Still, they seem not to pay attention to the target skills while writing.

This general description of the observed activities points to a problem concerning the teacher's and learners' ability to focus on a common object of attention, build shared understanding, engage each other's perspective and manage supportive interaction. In other words, difficulties in intersubjectivity construction are evident in the observed activity. In the upcoming sections, the way these aspects of intersubjectivity construction are addressed is analyzed and discussed.

4.1.Achieving shared understanding

For successful communication during joint activity, participants in a communicative event need to possess compatible conceptual and procedural referents (Mercer, 2000). That is, a shared mental space needs to be constructed in which more or less equal ways of conceptualizing experience exist. The process through which participants construct this space here comes under the label of *achieving shared understanding.* In this part of the analysis, the ways participants rely on each other and the teacher to access key understandings for the writing task are analyzed.

4.1.1. Focus

In achieving shared understanding, the focus refers to the specific aspect of experience which participants jointly attend to and reflect upon at a given moment of the activity (Mercer, 2000). Chart 1 shows the total frequencies of each of the focus types identified:

Chart 1: Total focus type frequency		
Focus types	**Frequency**	**%**
Conceptualization	59	41,25 %
Task purpose	1	0.69%
Task conditions	17	11.88%
Language	19	13.28%
Procedure	47	32.86%
Total token frequency:	143	

The most frequent focus type observed in the activities was conceptualization (deliberation upon an unknown concept), with 41, 25 % of occurrences. This is not surprising, since participants were dealing with novel concepts related to an unknown area of knowledge, as is medicine. The nature of the task also required deep consideration of the concepts, as learners were required to analyze the similarities and differences between them. An example of achieving shared understanding focused on conceptualization is provided in Example 1(Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 2) next:

Example 1

59 F With different technologies and goals…
60 L Well, I don't know. If I'm wrong there's nothing interesting because they have the same goal which is treating human health.
61 F So they both interact in the same way.
62 L I'm not sure, dude.
63 F I wrote that they did the same but with different methods.
64 L What about this part where they explain the way they interact.

Example 1 illustrates how achieving shared understanding focused on conceptualization occurs in an instance of student-student interaction. The object of conceptualization is the objective of homeopathic and chiropractic medicine. They are attempting to decide whether the objective of these types of medicine is different enough to

be compared in their individual essays. Two features from the above exchange can be highlighted. First, participants remain within the same focus throughout the exchange. Neither of them jumps into a different focus abruptly, but they interact collaboratively in conceptualizing the object. Secondly, the interaction proceeds in a way that one participants' contribution builds on the other participants' - something known as cumulative speech (Mercer, 2000)-. Both of these features indicate that these participants are relying on each other's mental capacities to find a common answer, a condition central to intersubjective knowledge construction. In other words, these participants are interacting as "thinking partners" (Rogoff, 1990)

In Chart 1, it can be also observed that procedures, that is, specific courses of action related to the task, were the second most frequent focus of shared understanding construction, with 32.86% of the total token frequency. The fact that participants focalized so frequently on task procedures was unsurprising, considering that the goal of the task was a practical skill, namely writing a compare and contrast essay. In Example 2 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 2) of focus on procedures is provided next:

Example 2

84	L	Teacher… teacher, in this class, I can use this model for the essay only…
85	T	Only not
86	L	I checked the list for contractor and
87	T	that's for the compare and contrast essay
88	L	But I'm stuck with the…
89	T	You're what?
90	L	I'm stuck with the..
91	T	You're stuck with the differences. You need to write a plan. Do a plan. You need an introduction. What style are you using? This style or this style?
92	L	Este
93	T	Anyways you need an introduction

94 L Ok.
95 T And a conclusion…
96 L Ok

In Example 2, an instance of achieving shared understanding focused on procedures is reproduced. The procedure focused was the writing of a compare and contrast essay draft, which required a series of stages: a) attending to a model, b) writing a plan, c) deciding between two writing styles explained in the textbook, and d) writing the sections of the essay. *L* signals missing knowledge in turn 84. Instead of asking a direct question such as "Can I use a different model to write my essay?", her missing knowledge signal consisted of an affirmation entailing an assumption that only the model provided could be used in that particular class. The discourse configuration of her missing knowledge signal suggests, however, that she was entertaining a different model from the one explained in the book. The teacher's response (*Only not*) seems to reflect comprehension of this implicature, but fails to provide the answer *L* might have been expecting (something along the lines of: *Only not, you can use this or that model, too*). In Turn 86, *L* attempts to contextualize the teacher and perhaps explain why she was considering a different model, but before she has a chance to do it, the teacher introduces other aspects of the procedure. This interaction reflects difficulty in achieving shared understanding: the teacher was able to understand the missing knowledge signal, but failed to explore the problem together with the student, switching to other aspects of the procedure instead.

Language difficulties related to vocabulary and grammar had a frequency of 13.28%. The focused vocabulary featured task-related terms (homeopathy, treatment, health, similarities), which spelling or collocation was confusing. This is rather surprising

finding, since language difficulties are assumed to be a central concern to EFL learners facing problem-solving tasks.

Task conditions, or the guidelines under which the task must be performed or submitted, constituted 11.88%. Among the most frequently focalized task conditions were the time of submission and the nature of the written product to submit. Task purpose, which refers to the final objective pursued by the activity, seemed quite clear to the participants, judging by its significantly low frequency (0.69%).

Distribution of focus types between student-student, teacher –student and teacher-class interaction, in Chart 2, shows some interesting contrasts:

Chart 2: Focus frequencies per interaction type

	S-S interaction	%	T-S interaction	%	T-C interaction	%
Conceptualization	14	19.71	5	11.90	0	0.00
Task conditions	6	8.45	3	7.14	7	11.47
Task purpose	1	1.40	0	0.00	0	0.00
Procedure	12	16.90	26	61.90	41	67.21
Language	15	21.12	3	7.14	0	0.00
Past experience	0	0.00	0	0.00	8	13.11
Token frequency:	71		42		61	

A striking difference between student-student and teacher-student interaction is the focus on conceptualization and procedure. In general terms, students seemed more concerned with conceptualization throughout the activities (32.39%), whereas the teacher appeared to be more focused on procedures (61.90%). Sometimes, when a student called upon the teacher to ask about concepts (such as in Example 2 above), the teacher switched the conversation towards the procedural aspect. In the example, the student claims to be "stuck" in finding the differences, but the teacher simply sidesteps this missing knowledge

signal and introduces procedural advice. The teacher seems to be following her own pedagogical agenda in detriment of learners' emerging needs.

It is also hard to evidence whether a common focus of attention on procedures was created between the teacher and students. In the example, the students' response in Turn 92 suggests an interrupted attempt to reorient the interaction; and in Turns 94 and 96, the student's *Ok*'s do not seem to reflect satisfaction with the proposed focus of attention. These *0k* responses, rather, seem to point to what in this analysis is known as "acquiescing", or passive compliance with someone else's position which could conceal disagreement or dissatisfaction. Acquiescing can be a sign of hindered intersubjectivity, since it hides the existence of two separate mental states and, consequently, different objects of attention. Another observation from Chart 2 is that, except for procedures, learners relied on each other for most of the focus types. A notable example of this is the focus on language, which for student-student interaction was 21.12%, whereas for teacher-student and teacher-class interaction was 7.14% and 0.00% respectively. Students' little or no reliance on the teacher for language issues, such as vocabulary and grammar, shows that students were mostly concerned with meaning than with form during the activities.

A different way of exploring focus in shared understanding construction is by observing its distribution across activities in the unit. Chart 3 shows focus types frequencies distributed across activities:

Chart 3: Focus frequencies in activities

	A1	%	A2	%	A3	%	A 4	%
Conceptualization	16	29.57	3	10.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Task conditions	6	10.71	2	6.66	7	25.92	0	0.00
Task purpose	1	1.78	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00
Conceptualization	14	25.00	8	26.66	14	51.85	4	6.45

Procedure	19	33.92	17	56.66	6	22.22	41	66.12
Product	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	17	27.41
Token frequency	56		30		27		62	

It must be reminded that activities 1 through 4 correspond to a single unit devoted to writing as part of a skill-based language program in place at the university. A first glance at the token frequencies in Chart 3 indicates a curve fluctuation in the amount of intersubjective meaning-making instances, with A1 and A4representing two peaks of intersubjective activity and activities 2 and 3 showing a significantly lower amount of it. Analysis of how the activity unfolded suggests that this fluctuation is related to participants' changing focus of attention. In activity 1, participants were only starting to grapple with the task at hand, which required efforts at creating shared conceptualizations. At this stage, procedures and the content to perform them with were the main focus of participants' attention, with 33.92% and 29.57% of focus occurrences respectively. Conceptualizations also occupied a significant amount of participants' attention, with 25.00 % of focus frequencies. Task conditions, with 10.71%, were to a lesser extent focused during activity one, probably because the conditions for task submission and performance were deemed clear at that moment. The only recorded instance of focus on task purpose (that is, on the goal being pursued by a specific task) occurred in Activity 1, with 1.78% of focus frequencies. This might be explained by the fact that, in ordinary teaching and learning, the purpose of activities is rarely brought into participants' range of awareness, the task purpose thus being tacit most of the time.

In activity 2, a substantial increase in participants' focus on procedures is observed, reaching 56.66% of focus frequencies. By the time activity 2 started, students had begun

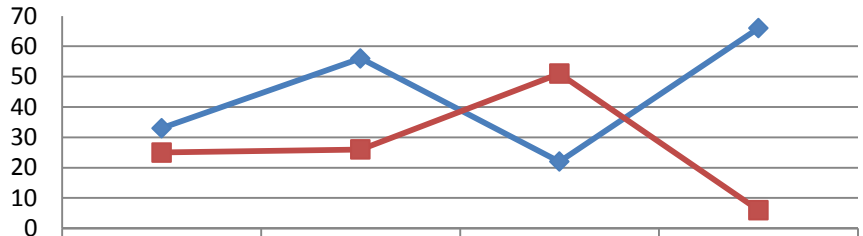
their writing as such, which probably accounts for the sudden rise of attention towards the "how" of the task. By that time, the teacher had also begun encountering difficulties in students' ability to perform procedurally, and she had been addressing them on a student by student basis. However, her approach to their difficulties at this moment was basically guiding their attention towards the resources available in the material (the model essay, the essay style explanation, the texts about medicine types). This shows that, during activity 2, the teacher still entertained the assumption that students were able to actively attend to these resources on their own. Later, during activity 4, this assumption is challenged by the persisting difficulties.

During activity 3, there is a sudden drop in participants' attention towards procedures, and a considerable increase in focus on conceptualization. At this time, the participants have begun to use the concepts jointly understood in activity 1 into their writing, a circumstance that could have guided their attention back to the solidity of their conceptualizations. The writing of a compare and contrast essay requires defined distinctions between the involved categories, a condition which, for learners new to the topic, could result in doubts about the accuracy of their understandings. These doubts were almost exclusively solved through other participants, rather than with the teacher. Another increase was observed in attention towards task conditions in activity 3, which, with 25.92% of focus frequencies, is the highest in the observed activities. The probable cause of this is participants' increased sense of haste as the submission deadline was approaching. The teacher had also begun to draw students' attention towards time constraints, which might have led to increased shared attention on submission deadlines and the nature of the product to submit.

In activity 4, there is another shift of attention towards procedures. The teacher has eventually decided to instruct students into the writing of a compare and contrast essay in a more focused way, by using a model. Her aim seems to be for students to become aware of the traits she expects to see in their submissions. This instructional moment proceeds in a rather stable question-response format with the teacher guiding students' attention towards specific features of the procedure of writing a compare and contrast essay. From students' responses, it is possible to infer that they are clear about the actions to be carried out, at least at a theoretical level. However, observation of some participants' interaction after this instructional moment reveals that, in spite of the explicitness of the earlier instruction, they still have a hard time deciding how to go about their texts. One of the participants, while interacting with the teacher, claims to be following the model provided in the book, which shows that, for some students, attention was successfully guided towards this resource.

By observing focus types across the four activities, an emerging pattern concerning the relationship between procedure and conceptualization focuses can be outlined. From the focus frequencies presented, it seems that focus on procedures and focus on conceptualization co-occur in opposite proportion, that is, a higher focus on procedures tended to co-exist with a lower focus on conceptualization, and vice versa. This relationship is shown in Graph 1 below:

Graph 1: Procedure-conceptualization



	A1	A2	A3	A4
PROCEDURE	33	56	22	66
CONCEPTUALIZATION	25	26	51	6

This apparently inverse relation between focus on procedure and focus on conceptualization might result from the selective nature of attention, as also found in Flower and Hayes' (1981) composition model, which states that specific aspects of the writing task compete for the author's attention at different times of the writing process.

4.1.2. Co-constructing knowledge

In this section of the analysis, attention is directed to how learners construct knowledge with the aid of learners and the teacher, knowledge defined as awareness of and ability to apply new concepts or procedures. In the study of how learners and the teacher construct shared knowledge, this analysis will focus on the specific functions carried out by participants and the focus of these functions.

4.1.2.1. Functions

Chart 5 presents the total frequencies of the functions performed by participants while constructing shared knowledge:

Chart 5: Total frequencies for actions in CCK		
	Freq.	%
Responding	24	15.28
Inquiring	23	14.64
Directing attention	21	13.37
Exchanging knowledge	20	12.73
Guiding	19	12.10
Appraising	19	12.10
Affirming	10	6.36
Arguing	6	3.82
Negotiating	6	3.82
Hypothesizing	4	2.54
Acquiescing	3	1.91
Drawing conclusion	2	1.27
Token frequency	157	

With 15.28% of action types, responding was the most frequent action in co-constructing knowledge, followed by inquiring (14.64%), directing attention (13.37%) and exchanging knowledge (12.73%).

4.1.2.1.Inquiring and responding

Inquiring and responding were the most frequent knowledge co-construction actions observed in the activities. Analysis of participants in terms of their inquiring and responding roles shows some interesting findings. Chart 6 shows inquiring and responding frequencies distributed between learners and the teacher:

Chart 6: Responding and inquiring frequencies for teacher and learners								
	Responding to students	**%**	**Responding to the teacher**	**%**	**Inquiring students**	**%**	**Inquiring the teacher**	**%**
Teacher	8	33.3	0	0.00	17	62.9	0	
Learners	16	66.6	20	100	10	37.0	4	100

Some differences are observable in inquiring-responding action in teacher-student and student-student interaction. To illustrate this observation, Example 3 from Observation

Transcript 2 (Appendix 1.2) below shows inquiring and responding in teacher-student and student-student interaction:

Example 3

118	T	Look at the introduction. Analyze it. **Where is the thesis statement? Can you identify? What is the topic?**
119	S	The topic is weather.
120	T	Introductory paragraph. Look at your introductory paragraph. **How many lines do you have?**
121	Ss	Four!
122	T	So, **where is the thesis statement? Where does it begin or where does it end?** Thesis statement is what the essay is going to be about. The idea that is going to be developed in each paragraph.
123	Ss	Xxx
124	T	Give me the topic sentence.
125	Ss	Begins in "By comparing" and ends in xxx.
126	T	**Do you agree? That's the thesis statement? This is what the author is going to do in the essay?** He's going to contrast climate type of activities and location could decide whether to vacation on the beach or in the mountains.
127	Ss	Yeah.
128	S	Yes.
129	T	And then, look at the second paragraph.
130	S	Begins with xxx
131	T	**Begins with climate? Which is the first sentence, and then? Where is the type of activities?**
132	C	In…
133	T	Christian, activities and then location. **Where is location?**
134	C	The final paragraph

The teacher's inquiring is characterized by the use of display questions (in bold), that is, questions which answer the teacher already possesses. The function of these questions is to elicit learners' responses so as to check comprehension or understanding of a specific language feature. These display questions were closed, that is, most of the time there was a single valid response to them. In some of the turns, the teacher transforms the structure of the question so as to make the response range more limited (as in turns 118 and 122). Learners' responses needed to approximate the answer which the teacher had in her mind. In Turn 126, the teacher actually asks and responds to her own question, and even

then students respond with *Yeah!* in turn 127. This attests to the rather fixed script of the previous interactional exchange, characterized by a sequence of teacher questioning and student responding.

Another feature of inquiring-responding in teacher-student interaction was the use of directives (underlined) to guide attention. Throughout the exchange, the teacher wished learners to become aware of the specific features of compare and contrast essays. She thus needed to control students' attention so that it was focused on those specific features.

A final feature to highlight in the above exchange is the switch from whole class inquiring to specific student inquiring observed in Turn 131. At this point, the teacher might have decided to check for understanding of her previous instruction with one particular student, perhaps one who had been demonstrating difficulties with the concept being explained. In this exchange, the teacher continues to narrow the response range of her question in an attempt to get the student to produce the answer which she had been holding.

Next, in Example 4 from Observation Transcript 2 (Appendix 1.2), an inquiring - responding exchange in student-student interaction can be observed. Unlike the previous teacher-class exchange, the participants attempted to arrive at shared understanding of how two types of medicine (homeopathic and chiropractic) were related.

Example 4

59	F	With different technologies and goals?
60	L	Well, I don't know. If I'm wrong there's nothing interesting because they have the same goal which is treating human health.
61	F	So they both have the same way of interacting…
62	L	I don't know, man..
63	F	I wrote that they do the same but with different methods.

When, in turn 59, *F* inquires about the technologies and goals of homeopathic medicine, he is genuinely interested in knowing *L*'s answer. He is not intending to check *L*'s understanding, or facilitating the production of a desired response, as occurred in the teacher-class exchange. It could be said that *F* believed *L*'s response to be important for his own understanding of the puzzle at hand. Also, the answers provided by *L* were not close-ended, but fairly open ended. These answers reveal that *L* is entertaining different possibilities and perspectives, instead of insisting on hers being the correct one. In turn 61, *F* draws a logical conclusion from *L'*s answer, which shows that he is actively processing *L'*s answer, rather than just checking its conformity to his own thoughts. What these two students enact in the previous Example is understanding happening *between* participants (Rogoff, 1990), which is at the heart of the concept of intersubjectivity.

The analysis of inquiring and responding in teacher-student and student-student interaction has shown some parallels in the way knowledge is constructed in both types of interaction. While in teacher-student interaction, knowledge construction was unidirectional, that is, one of the parties had to approximate the thinking of the other to construct understanding; in student-student interaction a more intersubjective type of knowledge construction could be observed, with parties mutually engaged with each other's reasoning processes and both motivated by finding an unavailable answer to an existing puzzle. Whether one or other form of constructing shared understanding is more effective remains to be explored. From the observations of this study, what could be preliminarily answered is that both shared understanding construction styles contribute to some extent to students' learning by providing different opportunities for acquiring and reinterpreting concepts.

4.1.2.2.Attention directing

The fact that directing attention was one of the most frequent actions in knowledge co-construction reinforces the assumption that, for intersubjective mental interaction, or inter-thinking, as Mercer (2000) names it, a shared focus of attention needs to be established. In the observed activities, the teacher stood out as the participant who directed others' attention most, as observed in Chart 7:

Chart 7: **Directing attention frequencies for teacher and learners**

	Teacher	**%**	**Learners**	**%**
Directing attention	**20**	95.23	**1**	4.76
Token frequency	21			

The teacher, with 95.23% of attention directing in knowledge co-construction, was the most frequent participant to perform this action. This finding stresses the teacher's mediating role between the curriculum and the learners. The teacher directs students attention towards specific areas of the instructional program which learners, on their own, would have a hard time attending to. Chart 8 shows the instructional elements which the teacher directed attention to during the observed activities:

Chart 8: Teacher's attention-directing frequencies per instructional area

	Freq.	**%**
Procedure	12	60.00
Self	3	15.00
Product:	3	15.00
Task conditions	2	10.00
Token frequency	**20**	

Most of the teacher's attention-directing focused on the procedure of writing a compare and contrast essay (60.00%). This is not surprising, given that the writing of this type of essay was the product of the unit. In directing learners' attention, the teacher focused on the essay model available in the textbook and the sections of the essay.

Concerning the model, it is interesting that, despite the teacher's direction of their attention towards it, participants did not attend to it most of the time. The teacher herself was aware of this fact, and made it known to the learners that she was feeling negatively about their failure to attend to her recommendations concerning the model, as seen in Example 5 (Observation Transcript 1, Appendix 1.1):

Example 5

101	T:	Do you think that is ok? What you are doing with me? What you're doing in your group. Ignoring me.
102	S:	We're paying attention, teacher.
103	T:	No, but in the process. You're not working together? Why are you ignoring me? Because it's not in the book?

Although the teacher's attitude in Example 3 could be described as humorous, she manifests a feeling of disconnect between her attention-directing efforts and students' actual lack of attention. Different factors could explain this disconnect. Students might not be accustomed to using models in their regular writing activities. The model in the textbook might have been too complex for learners to use it as a guide (See model in Appendix 5). Learners might as well have been too focused on hands-on writing to genuinely attend to the teacher's instruction, which makes sense considering that this explanation came in the middle of their draft writing. This latter possibility could justify the avoidance of instructional interventions amidst the writing process.

Other targets the teacher directed learners' attention to were herself (15.00%), their written product (15.00%) and task conditions. Regarding attention-directing towards the teacher herself, this normally occurred when the teacher needed whole class attention, as in Example 6 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2) below:

Example 6

75 T: (*Addressing the whole class*) Ok, could you stop there please? This is not an exam, you know. You think this is an exam and then you are so xxx. So, relax. This is practice. We're practicing how to address the writing of an essay. And after you finish that practice we're going to do some peer revision and this is not the one that I am going to assess. We will have another one. But I would like you to… first, I would like you to stop . Thank you. One, two three. Eyes on me. Thank you.

The previous attention-directing turn shows the teacher's need to insist on learners to pay attention to her, which demonstrates that learners were already focused on the task, thus being less likely to attend to her instructional intervention. The teacher also intends to decrease learners' perceived pressure towards the task by reducing the stakes of the activity, which further demonstrates that learners were in performance mode.

4.1.2.3.Exchanging knowledge

Before presenting the analysis of the exchanging knowledge function, it should be clarified that this subcategory does not involve knowledge which is constructed in teacher-class interaction during instruction. The reason for this is that, during whole class interaction (especially in lecture-type lessons), knowledge is not commonly exchanged, but delivered. Exchanging knowledge rather points to interactional moments in which participants contribute what they know with the aim of jointly understanding a common doubt or solving a shared problem. This is not necessarily exclusive of student-student interaction, though, for teachers and students might also engage in this function when a

shared problem exists between them. The information shared in this action often corresponds to understandings the speaker has constructed elsewhere, sometimes with different interlocutors. The relevance of exchanging knowledge in the exploration of intersubjectivity lies in the incompleteness of the information shared and its dependency upon others to become a fuller understanding. Chart 9 shows the distribution of exchanging knowledge moves across the observed activities:

Chart 9: Exchanging knowledge

SK: Exchanging knowledge	A1				A2				A3				A4			
	T	%	S	%	T	%	S	%	T	%	S	%	T	%	S	%
SK conceptualization	1	14.28	1	14.28	2	40.0	3	60.0	0	0.0	1	25.0	3	100	0	0.0
SK procedure	1	14.28	2	28.57	0	0.00	0	0.00	3	75.0	0	0.00	0	0.0	0	0.0
SK task conditions	0	0.00	2	28.57	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.00	0	0.0	0	
Token frequency	7				5				4				3			

Despite the small number of occurrences, a few trends can be outlined about exchanging knowledge actions. First of all, it can be seen how students' exchanging of knowledge decreases as the activities progress, which could be attributed to the increased intervention exercised by the teacher in her aim of guiding students' attention towards the formal features of the writing process. It could be hypothesized that, the more intervention by the teacher in the knowledge construction process, the fewer students' attempts at exchanging knowledge will occur. This idea makes sense in that, for full understanding of the target topics of a unit, the teacher is expected to play a central role in bridging students' comprehension. Upon receiving teacher instruction, students might stop feeling the need of making their own knowledge public to their peers.

The decrease in exchanging knowledge towards the later activities might as well be related to the operationalization of knowledge as learners enter the performance mode (the phase in which productive language use is emphasized). As participants' activity moves from discussion to practice, the need for shared knowledge would decrease. The mental referents upon which their performance draws might have been selected during the first activity, leaving the later activities to more practical knowledge co-construction.

As claimed above, during intersubjective activity, the knowledge shared is often incomplete, thus being reliant on the knowledge of others for completeness. In Example 7 from Observation Transcript 1 (Appendix 1.1), this claim can be grounded:

Example 7

103	L	(*Speaking to Christian*)Ese fue el que ella dijo, biomedical y homeopathy. Bueno, el de homeopathy… ¿ya tú clasificaste el de homeopathy?
104	C	Aja
105	L	Entonces no importa cualquier doctor que te la aplique. Es una bacteria que te la aplican y ya.
106	C	O sea, es más naturalista.
107	L	No, sí. Pero hay unos más complejos que otros.

In the above exchange, *L* shares knowledge by quoting the teacher's earlier mediation regarding medicine types. Her contribution to the collective knowledge pool concerns the fact that some medicine types involve more complex therapeutic techniques than others. However, her knowledge also becomes enriched by *C'*s logical conclusion regarding the more naturalistic nature of homeopathy, a side of the conceptualization *L* had failed to view. Thus, when in turn 107 *L* delivers her argument, she implicitly involves *C*'s shared knowledge into a broader perspective than the one she had before.

The previous exchange, however simple, contributes to illustrate the role of intersubjectivity in knowledge co-construction. The creation of shared understandings occurs within an intersubjective space within which participants share their partial knowledge and link it to that of others into more complex and complete knowledge networks. These networks constitute a collective thinking toolkit, or a "cloud", which participants utilize to mediate their own thinking and self-regulate their actions. This metaphor connects with Donato's (1994) assertion that, when in collaborative activity, learners act as collective experts, each contributing valuable views of aspects from a whole picture.

It has been observed throughout the present analysis and discussion that achieving shared understanding in student-student interaction differs from that in teacher-student interaction. Regarding the exchanging of knowledge, the intersubjective positioning between the teacher and the learner influences how this knowledge becomes publicly available. Example 8 from Observation Transcript 1 (Appendix 1.1) featuring an example of teacher-student interaction exposes this claim:

Example 8

31	T	Aaand *C*… yes?
32	L	Anyway we can write about the difference and the similarities…
33	T	Yes. And the other thing I would like to highlight is that, in the back, they recommend that you plan, and I would suggest that, if you're going for the block style, do a little plan like this, to help you prepare what you want to write about. If you're going by the point by point…
34	L	Is más specific…
35	T	No… the difference is that in every paragraph you touch the points for both type of medicine. Here, in this model, they take one paragraph for one type of medicine and the other paragraph for the other type of medicine, and here is whatever aspect you want to highlight you do both in the same paragraph… for the both, for both types of medicine, so do your plan. That will help you.

The length of the teacher's intervention stands in contrast with the short utterances characteristic of student-student interaction. Not only are the teacher's utterances longer, but also more conceptually dense and complex, as evident in their clause complexity. Such forms of speech would be rare in student-student interaction. However, apart from the obvious formal differences, one of the key differences in the teacher's utterances is the degree of certainty and completeness they are delivered with. Unlike in student-student interaction, the flow of shared knowledge is unidirectional. Learners participate as the beneficiaries of the teacher's expertise, their role being the active processing of the knowledge which is catered to them. This active processing is evidenced in their reactions towards what the teacher is saying, which could be viewed as tentative interpretations based on their background knowledge. Although these interpretations are not posed as questions, the teacher still begins her utterances with yes or no, which shows that students' utterances are treated as approximations to a fuller understanding, rather than as genuine contributions. In teacher-student interaction, achieving shared understanding seems to be about learners attempting to reach the teacher's level of understanding.

A contrast can be made when comparing teacher-student and student-student co-construction of knowledge. Whereas in teacher-student interaction the exchanging of knowledge is almost unidirectional and it is learners' job to process the teacher's utterances interpretively, in student-student interaction the flow is bidirectional, and both participants' commit to actively processing each other's contributions. Once more, the question as to which of these knowledge co-construction styles is more effective comes into discussion. The idea which has been stressed in this analysis and discussion is that both could serve distinct purposes in the learning process, with teacher-led knowledge construction being

oriented towards conceptual formation and peer-led knowledge construction being inclined towards conceptual consolidation and extension. In this regard, in Example 9 from the Teacher Interview (Appendix 2), the teacher comments:

Example 9

12 T: "I feel that peer interaction is more likely to bring about changes in terms of students' conceptual clarity or extension of existing knowledge, to move towards new understandings. That is why I strongly believe in group work. The teacher's role is, I believe, more that of a guide. For a teacher with 15, 20, 30 or more students in class, it is hard to have this type of [more flexible] whole-class interactions where new understandings are reached, or students can expand or check their comprehension of a concept."

In her own interpretation, the teacher ascribes high importance to peer-interaction in the co-construction of knowledge, considering it the choice space for learners to expand their comprehension and confirm their understandings. She also claims that it is difficult for teachers to arrive at such interpersonally engaging exchanges as in student-student interaction due to the need to cater for all students during lessons. In other word, the teacher supports the idea that the construction of intersubjectivity in teacher-student interaction is less likely than in student-student interaction. This belief does not necessarily reflect some students' feeling about the primacy of peer-interaction, though, as *C'*s comment in Example 10 in the Focal Group (Appendix 3) below suggests:

Example 10

1 C: "We would have liked a different methodology in which the teacher led the student from the beginning until the end, whether it is in groups or not, but in that way students can meet and discuss with their group having already understood. The teacher didn't give students guidance to work on their own. That could have the downside that, if you are not clear about a topic and your partners aren't either […] one is left all on its own in trying to figure it out."

C's comment reveals disbelief towards the achievement of shared understanding inside peer-interaction, which contrasts with the teacher's enthusiastic promotion of group-based conceptualization. This participant seems to prefer unidirectional knowledge construction where it is the teacher who caters for shared knowledge. He also expresses mistrust towards his partners' ability and his own to reach reliable understandings inside a group. This mistrust is observable in *C*'s insistence on teacher intervention during group work. These attitudes towards peer-led knowledge co-construction might interfere with the creation of a shared mental space between participants, since they entail negative assumptions towards the conceptual usefulness of peers' contributions. Considering this emerging factor (learners' attitude towards peer-led knowledge co-construction), the issue of which form of interaction is more conceptually enriching takes a different turn. Peer interaction could be effective if a particular participant is attitudinally receptive towards jointly conceptualizing with other peers. Learners who only trust the teacher's knowledge might not benefit as much from interacting with others.

4.1.2.4.Argumentative orientation: appraising, affirming and arguing

The analysis of argumentative orientation in intersubjectivity construction focuses on the relationship between participants' knowledge claims and those of their peers. In appraising , 12.10% of Achieving Shared Understanding (ASU) actions, participants assign an attribute to the object of argumentation (good, bad, incomplete, interesting). Affirming (6.36% of ASU) refers to knowledge claims which the speakers hold to be true based on their previous experience. Arguing (3.82% of ASU) involves providing reasons why another position should not be considered valid. These three actions stand within a continuum of cognitive engagement, with appraising being the most idiosyncratic.

Participants' appraisal reflects the values assigned to the task, their writing and themselves. The most frequent values appraised by students were complexity, interest and quality. The teacher's appraisal focused mostly on completeness. Complexity referred to the extent to which a concept required cognitive effort to be understood or to which a procedure involved more effort to be applied. Students' appraisal reveals a tendency to avoid dealing with more complex concepts and procedures to emphasize fluent production. It also shows that they tend to underappreciate the quality of their own writing, as well as to base their drafting choices on the degree of personal interest felt towards a particular subject.

4.2.Perspective taking

This section of the analysis explores how, in the process of developing a learning unit, the teacher and learners come to a shared mental space as to their own representations of the activity at hand. It shall be reminded that the concept of activity used in this dissertation comes from Ëngelstrom (2001), for whom an activity is a goal-oriented action fulfilled through specific actions, or *operations*, through some form of cultural and symbolic mediation within a community. Drawing from Activity Theory concepts outlined in the theoretical framework, the way the teacher's and students' perspectives reconcile or oppose each other during the observed lessons is analyzed, with special attention to how intersubjectivity is achieved or lost throughout the process.

4.2.1. The activity goal

There was a mismatch in activity goals between the teacher and the students. Whereas for the teacher, this was a practice activity which served as preparation for the unit test, for learners it was an evaluative activity on its own. These different perspectives are evident in the teacher's and participant's discourse both during class interaction and during post-hoc interviews and focal groups applied. For instance, in Example 11 from the Focal Group Discussion (Appendix 3), *C* and F discussed the following:

Example 11

5 *C:* One gets all tangled up because things aren't clear enough, and that's what happened in the writing assessment. She [the teacher] included the topic of nouns and my group and I were like… what?

6 *F:* That writing assessment was really…

7 *C:* A lot of people failed it, and that's the reason. Because everyone, I mean… I kept some doubts and the teacher would just teach and then let us work by ourselves.

From this focal group discussion, it becomes clear that, for participants, this apparently practical activity had a close connection with the eventual assessment. Rather than seeing it as an opportunity to expand their academic writing skills (as the teacher had viewed it), this was for them a preparatory stage for the upcoming test. This test-oriented perspective affected participants' performance throughout the activity. It could explain why, for instance, their appraisal of their own product was so critical and focused on quality; and why some of them experienced pressure and frustration towards task conditions. This perspective mismatch could also explain why some of the learners were so insistent upon preferring teacher support rather than student support. The teacher acknowledges this perspective mismatch in Example 12 (Teacher Interview, Appendix 2):

Example 12

17 R: How could you explain the fact that some of your students did not apply your guidance during their draft writing?

18 T: That's interesting, since that was not a final assignment but a practice task, so I felt I was concerned that some of them weren't yet able to… which shows many things. Perhaps there wasn't enough conceptualization or, maybe, enough appropriation of the model by students.

The teacher was certainly aware that some learners were not sharing her idea of the activity being for practice. What she was probably not aware of is that some of her actions were being interpreted by those students as test-oriented. In Example 13 from activity 3 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2), for instance, the teacher mentions the assessment three times in a single turn:

Example 13

T: (*addressing the whole class*) You have not followed the models. You intuitively have started writing the way you normally write, but you have ignored the model. I keep telling you, go and see the model but you are very attached to your previous writing and you ignore me. Now, I'm telling you, if you continue doing that, ignoring me, you are going to do really badly in your actual assessment because we have instructions for that and we're expected to write something similar, a compare and contrast essay which is factual, which is very simple, no big complications, just to the point, ok? This is so, so simple that you feel it is not good. I have this feeling from you. Is that right? This is just something simple. I need to write more, I need to impress, I need to elaborate creative complicated sentences. No. So, we need to review for the exam that we're having for Monday.

This fact, in and out of itself, does not convey a test-oriented perspective. However, according to Mercer (2000), repetition of a theme in discourse can unconsciously lead to the creation of a frame of reference. In this case, the frame of reference unknowingly created by the teacher is one in which the future assessment was of foremost importance. At least this is the frame that some of the learners seem to have built, and the one they seemed to be operating on.

Being goals the drivers of our purpose-oriented actions, it is predictable that the mismatch in the teacher's and some students' goals are going to lead to other perspective mismatches which will, in turn, make it difficult for them to achieve intersubjectivity. It is important for the teacher to only state goals from the beginning of the lesson but also to check that students' frames of reference throughout the activity are compatible with the set goal. Even when this is accomplished, it is still hard to get students out of the test-oriented frame, partly because testing largely influences their learning decisions at the undergraduate level. Thus, for teachers, it is a challenge to get students to see practice within a neutral perspective.

4.2.2. Main problems and satisfactors

The way the teacher's and participants' goals mismatched to some degree during the observed activities has been described. Attention will now turn to the main problems encountered by both participants in accomplishing their goals, and the satisfactors they both seek for those problems.

Considering the analysis of achieving shared understanding in the previous section, a recurrent problem for students was in finding accurate distinctions between the medicine types which constituted the content of the task. This represented a significant problem to them, in that, to be able to write their compare and contrast essays, clear comprehension of these medicine types was necessary. The textbook material where participants were expected to understand those distinctions was quite lengthy for their level (See Appendix 5, and, considering the time constraints inherent to the task and the multiple task variables which demanded their attention, reading all of this material at the adequate level of depth was too time-consuming. The satisfactor to this problem thus could not be the textbook alone. To be able to understand the medicine types involved, participants also resorted to their peers' mind as a concept-building resource. As a matter of fact, because of the demands of the task, learners built a form of solidarity to collectively cope with the problem of time-constrained conceptually dense long texts. In Example 14 (Focal Group , Appendix 3), one of the participants' comments provides some insights into this form of solidarity:

Example 14

10. *L:* I don't like asking questions that much because I feel that I usually try to understand things on my own, so I remember that day *C* was asking too many questions and I was a little ashamed with the teacher because it was like he was asking the same over and over. I mean, he wasn't reading the paragraph where we were explained what to do, so I tried to explain but he wouldn't understand and then he started asking the teacher and I just went on with my own thing.

In her comment, *L* reveals solidarity in two different ways. First, she suggests having had a sense of empathy for his partner, whom she could notice having trouble in understanding the medicine types. This sense of empathy could imply that she had begun to establish primary intersubjectivity with her partner, that is, she had been able to recognize a subjective state in him (confusion) and its related feeling (frustration). She was able to relate an outward behavior (asking the same question repeatedly) to an inner state (confusion). She was also able to perceive the source of his problem, which, according to her was failure to attend to the source text. She was probably able to identify this problem because she had previously experienced the same confusion and had found the source text to be a suitable satisfactor. *L* assumed, from her prior experience, that looking at the source text was also going to be helpful to *C.* From this string of intersubjective mental processes, it can be seen that *L* had already devoted some of her cognitive capacity to understand and device a way of supporting *C* in his problem.

The second way in which *L* demonstrates solidarity is by actually providing that support. Not only does she suggest having provided support, but she also implies having made an effort to make him understand what she meant. She might as well have decided to focus on her own work and let her peers deal with their confusions themselves, which she did eventually, but instead, she struggled to take her peer out of the confusion. For *C,*

however, *L*'s support was not the preferred satisfactor, but the teacher's. This preference for teacher support prevented *C* from trusting her partner's perspective and appreciating her gesture as one of empathy. This preference for the teacher as a satisfactor of cognitive difficulties seems to be rooted in *C*'s beliefs about teaching and learning, as Example 15 (Focal Group, Appendix 3) extract below shows:

Example 15

5 *F:* Classmates are never going to be like the teacher. So, they kind of try to explain to you what they understood, and what you end up doing with someone who doesn't fully understand is getting even more confused.
6 *C:*One gets more confused because none of us is clear about it.

C's dispreference of peers as a satisfactor to cognitive difficulties roots out of his belief that they are always as confused as he is, which renders their support unreliable. For him, the only source of valid clarification was the teacher. In this case, the mismatch in *L*'s and *C*'s preferred ways of solving problems led to loss of intersubjectivity between the participants, as *C*'s beliefs prevented him from entering a shared mental space with a supportive partner. This example shows that perspective mismatches can lead to loss of intersubjectivity not only between the teacher and learners, but also between learners themselves, as the teacher points out in Example 16 (Teacher Interview, Appendix 2):

Example 16

13 R: Do you consider that the teacher's status prevents more fluid interaction between teachers and students from occurring?
14 T: Not only between the teacher and students, but also between students. If [a student] wants to position [himself] better by asking questions or showing uncertainty, the student also loses [some face] with his peers.

The teacher again attributes intersubjectivity loss to the issue of face, that is, the need to protect one's own and other's image during social interaction (Brown, 1977). For the teacher, the display of uncertainty sometimes constitutes a face-losing behavior between learners. However, as other interactions analyzed here have shown, this is not always the case. Participants demonstrated empathic supportive behavior towards others, as will be examined in the next section of the analysis. The teacher's face-saving hypothesis, however, might explain why *C* dispreferred peer support. Perhaps receiving support from peers whom he considers equally confused might threaten his face by situating him in a less knowledgeable and therefore less powerful position before them.

Speaking of the teacher, she also manifests in her way of teaching some preferred ways of dealing with task-related problems, as in Example 17 (Teacher Interview, Appendix 2):

Example 17

22 T: I have this deep-rooted belief that if I, as an individual who is trying to learn, don't do the work needed, in this case doing the comparison and noticing what's missing and why I can't do it, whatever the teacher tells me will be of no help because that will only be a verbalization of something that actually needs to done [as a procedure].

From the teacher's comment, it can be inferred that her preferred way of dealing with problems is working on them by relying on her own autonomous capacities to notice and solve difficulties. This perspective contrasts with *F* and *C*'s perspective about the teacher being the choice satisfactor of their cognitive difficulties. For the teacher, it is

students' job, and not hers, to come to grips with problematic concepts in the input. For *F* and *C*, it is the teacher's job to solve all of those cognitive difficulties before they can perform autonomously. This might explain why *F* and *C*'s general assessment of the teacher's way of teaching is negative, whereas those of other more autonomous students like *L* in Example 18 (Focal Group, Appendix 3), are more positive:

Example 18

23 L: Many students, me included, have sometimes believed that English is a class you come in and just want to walk out of quickly, so when one is told to work in groups, that sounds like more wasted time and you're lazy to do it. But in this case we had to work the whole class in groups and we had to do activities together all of the time, and most of the time you just needed to pay attention to what you had to do [and do it as a group on our own]. I think I liked it that way better.

L's comment shows congeniality with the teacher's perspective that students' cognitive capacities working collaboratively in a group, without need of permanent teacher support, are sufficient for solving difficulties. This way of thinking reflects commonalities in the teacher's and *L*'s way of conceiving learning, and probably, too, in their learning styles. This points to the possibility that learners who have beliefs and ways of learning congenial to those of the teacher are more likely to understand the teacher's rationale and thus establish better intersubjectivity with her than those with incompatible beliefs. On this issue of the relationship between her learning style and her way of teaching, the teacher comments in Example 19 (Teacher Interview, Appendix 2):

Example 19

24 T: It is inevitable for a teacher to reflect her own way of learning and understanding in the way she teaches. I think my view of learning and the way learning occurs is through doing. Those who do are the ones who learn, and not the ones who talk. I think that belief really influences the way I relate to my students, though it may be perceived as [a refusal to offer support].

The teacher's comment and the rest of examples analyzed in this subsection all point to a connection between participants' way of conceiving learning, the type of situations they recognize as problems and the satisfactors sought for those problems. These beliefs about learning may differ from those of other participants. This mismatch could lead to lower intersubjectivity between participants, as the coexistence of different ways of solving problems decreases each other's mutual engagement in seeking common solutions.

4.2.3. Rules and roles

In activity theory, rules represent the socially validated ways of behaving which individuals seeking adhesion to a community are expected to follow (Leontiev, 1981). In this case, the community is made up of the teacher and the learners in the undergraduate level seven course, and the activity is the production of a compare and contrast essay draft. Traditionally, the teacher concentrates the most regulating power inside a classroom community, deciding among other things what is going to be instructed, when, in what way and with what purpose. Learners also traditionally expect the teacher to exercise this power, and often view delegation of it to themselves as a deviant situation (Mercer, 2000).

In this regard, one of the rules applied by the teacher in this community is that the learning activities had to be carried out in groups, or teams as she calls them. She also

instructed learners to rely on each other as much as possible when doing learning tasks. For the teacher, who claims to be applying team-based learning as a language teaching and learning methodology, it is both possible and desirable that learners achieve joint understanding by using each other's meaning-making capacities. This belief and its ensuing rule, however, may have represented yielding of one of the teacher's centurial roles as the owner and giver of knowledge inside the classroom.

For some learners, the do-all-you-can-in-groups rule was fairly understandable and convenient. In Example 20 (Focal Group, Appendix 3), for example, *M* commented:

Example 20

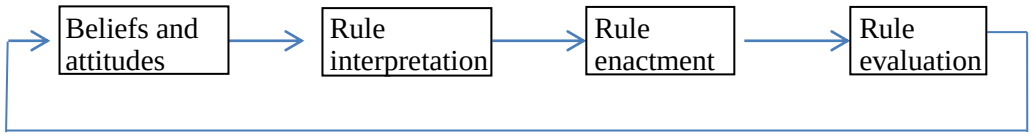
27 M: The teacher organized us in groups and she told us to help each other and ask each other if we didn't understand something. Sometimes we asked her something and she would ask us why we weren't helping each other, because we were sometimes doing things on our own and she was trying us to become involved and do the activities as a group, so I guess that's why [we were helping each other] instead of turning to the teacher for help.

M's interpretation of the rule matches the teacher's rationale for implementing it. As the teacher, *M* understood the purpose of the do-all-you-can-in-groups rule as being the creation of a supportive network. She therefore assumed the new role created by this rule willingly. Other participants, nevertheless, had different interpretations of the purpose of the rule, such as did *F* in Example 21 (Focal Group, Appendix 3)*:*

Example 21

9 *F:* I understand that the idea of working in groups was for us to become more involved with our partners, but what happened? When you are with a classmate you usually find it easier to speak in Spanish and I know the idea was to speak English and being with the group but, you know…that also our problem as students because it's easier to be explained something in Spanish and then you can translate it into English. That's the wrong thing about that methodology.

F's interpretation of the rule was different from the teacher's original rationale in that the teacher's purpose was mainly for students to become a mutually supportive team, which does not necessarily imply continuous use of English in group interaction. Because *F*'s interpretation of the rule was that groups were supposed to always speak in English, failure to observe continuous use of English inside his group led him to negatively evaluate his group's work and the team-based methodology in general. Both *F'*s and *M'*s reports of their perceptions of the do-all-you-can-in-groups rule reveal a connection between participants' prior beliefs about and attitudes toward teaching and learning, their way of interpreting rules inside the classroom community, the way they apply the rule and expect others to apply it and the way they evaluate the outcomes of the activities regulated through that rule. This connection is represented in the cyclical diagram below:



The long line below the diagram represents the cyclical connection between rule evaluation and participants' beliefs and attitudes. When evaluating, like *F* and *M* did in the previous comments, learners confirm or dispel their original beliefs and attitudes, which can lead to their reinforcement or adjustment. In *M*'s case, she adjusted her original beliefs about group work and now she has a positive attitude towards it, whereas in *F'*s case, his original belief about group work not being effective is reconfirmed. It could be hypothesized that the more reconfirmations of a belief, the stronger it becomes and the more likely it is to affect future rule interpretations.

Despite the perceived inconvenience of the do-all-you-can-in-groups rule for some learners, none of the participants communicated it to the teacher, at least during the observed classes. In fact, during field observation, the class atmosphere seemed pretty lively. No evident signs of perspective mismatch were evident in student-student and teacher student interaction. The question arises as to why dissenting learners would not speak out their minds to the teacher. A possible answer lies in what Mercer (2000) calls *conversational ground rules* (refer back to the theoretical framework section), which are the tacit social conventions speakers observe when engaging in particular forms of interaction. Example 22 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2) sheds some light into the conversational ground rules operating in teacher-student interaction in this and probably most classroom communities:

Example 22

167	T	(*Speaking to F*) <u>What are you doing? Why don't you follow the model?</u> This is the information that you're going to use, but the model is clear, so try to follow the model.
169	F	The thesis is… is…I want to…
171	T	Review? But this is only the introduction, I need the whole thing.
172	F	I write that because I started like that in the book.
173	T	This is an introduction.
174	F	And I was writing the model
175	T	Ok, you can write the introduction and see if it has a thesis. That's the only thing you can do.
176	F	I think that is good because I see in the model and I take some structures
177	T	I'm not saying anything. I'm just saying that you can only review the introduction now because the rest is not complete. (*The teacher turns to another student*).

From the above example of interaction, the following ground rules can be inferred:

- The teacher can directly inquire learners about their ongoing performance. For learners to ask the teacher directly about their actions would be inappropriate (it might be interpreted as questioning or challenging his/her actions).
- It is acceptable for the teacher to offer directive guidance for the learner, whereas for the student it would be inacceptable (it might be taken to suggest that the teacher does not know what to do).
- If the teacher asks a question, the student is expected to answer with the required information. Conversely, it is not an obligation for the teacher to respond to the student in the exact terms of his question.
- Interrupting students in order to complete their ideas is admissible for the teacher, not so for students. Interrupting the teacher's utterances is a sign of disrespect and disruption.
- It is inappropriate of the student to openly contradict the teacher or to overtly imply that he is in a mistake, especially in front of others. For the teacher, on the other hand, it is perfectly acceptable to show the student wrong, even in public.
- It is the teacher the one who delimitates the students' actions and decides if they meet the standards or not. For students to require the teacher to conform to a specific standard or to directly demand compliance of a norm is dispreferred.
- It is the teacher who decides when the interaction ends, even when the interlocutor may not be ready to end it.

The above listed rules are not unique to the specific class observed in this study. Similar rules of conduct have been observed to be tacitly applied with different degrees of

rigor across countries. Critical discourse analysts have, for example, examined issues of power and control in different school settings, reaching the conclusion that the existing power structures in educational institutions reify the teacher's power to control interaction at different levels (Fairclough, 1995). Curriculum studies seeking support for learner-centered curriculum design have also found resistance from students when it comes to receiving some of the power traditionally belonging to teachers, such as deciding what to learn and through which activities. The teacher of this class is aware of this resistance issues, thus commenting in Example 23 (Teacher Interview, Appendix 2):

Example 23

12 T: I feel that, with the teacher, students don't usually reach [an intersubjective] level of interaction because of the issue of losing face. If I show them that I have a real question, they will be like: "how come you are asking a question?"

It could be said that the prevailing conversational ground rules in this class (as well as in most classes) make it difficult for both teachers and learners to integrate their perspectives, thus limiting intersubjectivity between them. Conformity to culturally assigned rules and roles, while contributing to the maintenance of harmony in interaction, could be one of the reasons that teachers and learners sometimes stand on two separated mental planes, even when apparently the connection exists. In this regard, it would be constructive for teachers to position themselves at a more equal level with students, not by demonstrating lack of content knowledge (which is what students and society in general least expect from a teacher), but by being more willing to converse in equal terms with them, by applying more equalitarian interactional practices, such as helping students pose

their doubts, pausing to listen carefully to what the student has to say, giving students the opportunity to question the teacher's perspective and managing turns more cooperatively.

4.2.4. Verbal and mental projection

In Systemic Functional Linguistics, projection refers to speech reporting other people's thoughts or words (Martin and White, 2005). In analyzing projection, focus on mental and verbal process in student-student and teacher-student interaction is placed. Although the level of analysis that could be reached using SFL could go far deeper, the interest in analyzing projection in the observed activities is to identify the perspectives which the teacher and participants mostly embrace in creating shared mental spaces. It should be noted, though, that projection is not the only way of conveying someone else's perspective in class. Other linguistic structures could imply a different perspective, such as *the teacher wants to, he likes,* etc. However, analysis of these structures is not performed in this paper.

Chart 10 shows frequencies of projection types for the teacher and learners during the observed activities:

Chart 10: Projection type frequencies for teacher and learners		
Projection type and author	Frequency	%
Teacher-mental	15	62.5
Teacher-verbal	5	20.83
Learner-mental	2	8.33
Learner-verbal	2	8.33
Token frequency	24	

The teacher stands out as the most frequent author of mental (62.5%) and verbal (20.83%) projections, whereas learners did significantly less projection (8.33% verbal and 8.33% mental).

The teacher's significant frequency of mental projections seems to indicate that, throughout the observed activities, the teacher is making an effort to sound out students' mental states, probably in an effort to check whether her methodological interventions were achieving the intended effect in learners' minds. This interpretation is warranted by exchanges such as the one presented in Example 24 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2) below:

Example 24

81 T 1.You have noticed how you are influenced by your writing experience?
Now what you are writing is an essay. It's a compare and contrast essay. In fact, I have the posters in my office.
Factual information, there should be objective presentation. No emotions. No "I like, I think, I prefer" no no no.
You just compare and contrast two things, two methods, two … whatever, and you can use in other area of your life.
You have not followed the models. 2.You intuitively have started writing the way you normally write, but 3.you have ignored the model.
I keep telling you, go and see the model but 4.you are very attached to your previous writing and 5.you ignore me.
Now, I'm telling you, 6.if you continue doing that, ignoring me, you are going to do really badly in your actual assessment because we have instructions for that and we're expected to write something similar, a compare and contrast essay which is factual, which is very simple, no big complications, just to the point, ok?
This is so, so simple that you feel it is not good. 7.I have this feeling from you. Is that right?
This is just something simple. 8.I need to write more, I need to impress, I need to elaborate creative complicated sentences. No.

The above example shows how the teacher uses mental projections to reflect her assumptions about students' beliefs, feelings and actions. Processes such as *notice*, *ignore* and to be *attached* represent learners' mental states in the way the teacher perceives them from her reading of their ongoing behavior. In her use of the process *ignore*, the teacher depicts learners as sensers and their act of ignoring her class as the phenomenon. In her perspective, learners are conscious participants of the phenomenon of ignoring someone because of previous beliefs. In sentence 8, those beliefs the teacher assumes students hold are made explicit through direct projection (*I need to write more, I need to impress*). This explicitation of learners' beliefs, however, does not take into account students' actual verbalization of their beliefs. This is partly evidenced in the lack of verbal projections of students' utterances. The verbal processes are from the teacher herself (*I keep telling you…*) This would have been a more engaging exchange if the teacher had asked students about their beliefs, and then she could have engaged with dialog about those beliefs. In other words, for this form of exchange to be more intersubjective, teachers could attempt to uncover learners' mental states through exploratory dialogue before building hard and fast assumptions about what they think, believe or feel.

In this speech, which in reality is a string of functionally distinct moves (in SFL terms), the teacher's efforts at understanding learners' mental processes in regard to the unit focus can be observed. In the first part of her intervention, when she asks the class whether they have noticed the same as her, she is attempting to draw students towards her perspective in an attempt to validate her belief that their previous writing experience was interfering with their current performance. Then, she reminds learners of the previous classwork in which they distinguished between compare and contrast essays and other

essay types. By doing this, she creates a context in which the implicature that sufficient coursework has been done on the topic is also valid. Until then, the teacher has presented her view and contextualized it to the class, in what could be called the "engagement" phase.

The next move in the teacher's intervention involves identifying the root of the ongoing problem (students' failure to apply the traits of compare and contrast essays in their drafts). Previously, she had enquired students about their prior writing experience, and in this intervention, she describes learners' actions as intuitive rather than deliberate. She explains the problem in terms of students intuitively ignoring her in favor of their prior experience. This, which could be called the "explanatory" phase, reveals a quite scientific approach in the teacher's search of explanations. She does not announce her beliefs as maxims, but she submits them to learner's validation. She also attempts to explain an observable phenomenon from a cognitivist rationale, rather than from her own beliefs or experience.

Afterwards, the teacher brings her discourse down to earth, and makes learners aware of the practical consequences of students' non-observance of her instructional intervention, namely, receiving a low score in the unit assessment. She then mentions "having instructions" and "being expected to" follow them, which could be interpreted as a recall of the content which the program demands to be covered.

Finally, the teacher makes explicit her beliefs about students' beliefs. She actually seems to be assuming their role when she says "I need to write more, I need to impress". This explicit display of "beliefs about beliefs" gives learners access to their own tacit perspectives, thus making it easier for the teacher to influence them.

What the above exchange and its moves show is that the teacher was attempting to create a joint mental space with learners by inviting them to deliberate with her about their own beliefs. In terms of intersubjectivity, the "beliefs about beliefs" exercise connects with the idea of recursive speech, or speech about speech (Tomasello, Kruger & Ratner, 1993), which is one of the features of intermental engagement and a precursor of cultural learning.

4.3.Supportive intersubjectivity

In general, intersubjective support in the observed activities demonstrated functional differences with other forms of support, such as pedagogical and artifact-mediated support. Three types of intersubjective support were observed: cognitive, strategic and evaluative support.

4.3.1. Cognitive support

Cognitive support refers to the assistance provided to the manifest or implicit difficulties in other participants' thinking processes. In the case of the observed activities, cognitive difficulties mainly arose from the conceptualization of the types of medicine which constituted the content of the writing products. Activity 1, for example, required participants to compare and contrast two types of medicine in a short expositive essay. The types of medicine involved did not bear clear-cut differences, which led to confusion in some of the participants. However, participants were usually ready to mediate their peers' conceptualizations once difficulties were sensed.

In Example 25 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2) below, an example of cognitive intersubjective support is presented. This exchange occurred at the beginning of the activity, when learners were starting to make sense of the task conditions and the task content at hand. The task required learners to produce an outline of a compare and contrast essay in which two types of medicine described in one of the textbook readings (See Appendix 5) were compared.

Example 25

51	L	Ya sabes con qué lo vas a comparar?
52	C	Si sí. Ya lo pillé. ¿Tú cual vas a hacer?
53	L	Voy a leer esto pa ver cómo es la vuelta, pero no sé con qué lo voy a comparar.
54	C	Sí pillas, el humanistic…
55	L	Yo no me voy a complicar, ¿tú ya no cogiste el humanistic?
56	C	El humanistic es que ve xxx
57	L	sí
58	C	Este también
59	L	sí? Tu feeling va ahí.
60	C	Claro marica, lo que tú sientes…
61	L	hahahaha… te estoy mamando gallo…
62	C	Pero este también…. De todo tu ser (*speaking humorously*)
63	L	Yo creo que sí…
64	C	Mira, entonces son los similarities

The supportive exchange starts when *L* inquires *C* on the two types of medicine he is going to compare and contrast in his outline. *C* had already started his outline after receiving teacher mediation on the concepts to be compared. *L*, on the other hand, was still hesitant about the type of comparison she was going to make. Right after that, *C* attempts to support *L* on her identification of the differences, presumably using some of the mediation previously received from the teacher. However, *L* seems more interested in using *C*'s already produced comparison as a model to guide hers (Turn 55). She then takes a closer

look at *C*'s work and remarks on some of its flaws humorously (Turn 62). Her comments make *C* feel the need of defending his product from *L*'s humorous though critical stance.

The above exchange implies an intersubjective cognitive mediation considering the symmetrical positioning in which both participants manifest a genuine interest in assisting each other's thinking processes. Use of humor in *L*'s critical remarks and understanding of these as humorous by *C* reveals both an affective connection (primary intersubjectivity) and comprehension of each other's goal-oriented actions (secondary intersubjectivity). In a similar vein, Example 26 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2) below shows how intersubjective cognitive support is mutually constructed:

Example 26

35	*L*	The purpose of chiropractic medicine is to take all problems and fix them by adjusting certain parts of the body and here it says that this idea is supported in the body's natural ability to heal itself.
36	*F*	That sounds interesting.
37	*L*	That's not the problem. Do you know the meaning of chiropractic?
38	*F*	No, what does it mean?
39	*L*	(*Reading from the textbook*)You had a praxis action…
40	*F*	Aha
41	*L*	How do you say that both methods have to do with production? Here the interesting thing is that health is treated differently and so on…
42	*F*	That's right…
43	*L*	Anyway, here it's treated in a different way.

What concerns the participants in the previous example is jointly conceptualizing and appraising the types of medicine which constitute the task content. They are jointly attempting to identify the characteristics of chiropractic medicine, using the textbook as artifact mediation. In Turn 35, *L* provides a verbalization from the description of

chiropractic medicine given in the textbook, focusing on its goal. *F* appraises the content of *L*'s verbalization as interesting. However, for *L*, this conceptualization does not seem to match task requirements (Turn 36), and he decides to sound out *F*'s interpretation. It seems that, for *L*, the mediation from the book added to his own conceptualization was not enough. He wished to engage *F* as a thinking partner.

Thus far, intersubjective cognitive support has been explored within the conceptual aspect. Participants' different forms of supporting one another's thinking processes have been analyzed from the lens of intersubjectivity. Another form of cognitive support traced in the observed activities is linguistic support. This form of support can be considered intersubjective in that participants need to be able to read the mental goings-on of the other participant in order to provide the appropriate form of support. In Example 27 (Observation Transcript 1, Appendix 1.1), this is illustrated:

Example 27

71	C	Ey, como se escribe similitud en español?
72	M	Similarities
73	L	Simila… ¿dónde está?... similita…
74	C	Simili…
75	L	Similitaries
76	F	Similarities
77	L	Se dice si-mi-la-ri-ties..
78	C	¿Sí?
79	L	Mira
80	C	XXX no es con doble ele?
81	L	No, es con xxx. Mira ve, es así. Si-mi-li
82	C	Similar..
83	L	ri-ties

The previous example shows linguistic support being offered to one of the participants on the spelling of the word "similarities". The exchange starts with *C* making a direct call for support, which meets *M*'s immediate answer. It becomes clear, however, that *M'*s support does not fulfill the initial request, which was focused on the orthographical aspect. *L'*s revoicing of *C'*s question also shows that this participant had been entertaining the same doubt. *L* asks to be shown the word written, as he strives to rehearse the spelling aloud. *C* joins *L* in his spell aloud strategy. *L* eventually manages to pronounce the word completely, and proceeds to offer more explicit support in face of *C*'s persistent inability. This more explicit support comes in the form of syllabic division of the word. *C* seems to have mentally represented the spelling and contrasted it with a different mental representation, as evidenced in his question (*¿Sí?*). Noticing *C'*s disbelief, *L* moves one step farther in the supportive scale by showing the problematic word written. *C* continues comparing the presented spelling with his initial mental representation, to which *L* responds with further assistance in noticing the actual form. The supportive exchange does not, nevertheless, lead to *C*'s being able to reproduce the word, at least not aloud. *L* still ends his reproduction attempt with a hispanicized ending of the word (tI-Es).

In Example 28 (Observation Transcript 1, Appendix 1.1), an episode of teacher-mediated cognitive support can be observed. In this Example , *C* turns to the teacher for help in distinguishing the differences between the types of medicine involved. Before, he had tried to agree with his group members on a distinction, but no consensus was reached. During the exchange, it is possible to observe how *L*, who had previously sustained disagreement with *C*, now assists him in putting his doubt forward to the teacher (Turns 21,23,32). The teacher's cognitive mediation focused on expanding *C*'s range of

comparison, which he had been unnecessarily narrowing to two particular types of medicine.

Example 28

17	C	(talking to the teacher) If we have to compare this xxx… for example a CIA…
18	T	Yes…
19	C	Aha, I don't see the relation, for example the biomedical, humanistic is a really different but in the c… aja ese
20	T	Ok
21	L	in the camps??
22	C	I don't see to..
23	L	the point of comparation
24	T	The similarities?
25	C	Uhmm..
26	L	yes…
27	T	But I could see for example, I see similarities between the biomedical and homeopathic… I think there are certain things…
28	L	and the naturopathy…
29	T	But then, choose the other one… if you don't find a lot of similarities between the biomedical and the CAMPS, then compare the humanistic and the CAMPS.
30	C	Aaand teacher…
31	T	Aaand Carlos… yes?
32	L	Anyway we can write about the difference and the similarities…
33	T	Yes. And the other thing I would like to highlight is that, in the XXX, they recommend that you plan, and I would suggest that, if you're going for the block style, do a little plan like this, to help you prepare what you want to write about. If you're going by the point by point…
34	L	Is más specific…
35	T	No… the difference is that in every paragraph you touch the points for both type of medicine. Here, in this model, they take one paragraph for one type of medicine and the other paragraph for the other type of medicine, and here is whatever aspect you want to highlight you do both in the same paragraph… for the both, for both types of medicine, so do your plan. That will help you.

This support does not, however, address his original request in regard to distinguishing those medicine types. As a result, as *C* reports in Example 29 (Focal Group, Appendix 3), he did not consider this a successful mediation:

Example 29

1 *C:* Perhaps the teacher didn't explain well… I mean, she didn't totally clear out the doubt we had. So we kept on with the same misunderstanding, but then, we didn't want to call the teacher again to explain something we didn't understand.

Looking at the exchange more closely, it is possible to notice how the teacher interprets *C*'s as a request for strategic support. In Turns 29 and 33, her mediation focuses more on what to do, rather than on the concept itself. It is possible that the students' request for support was not clearly posed due to linguistic limitations. The teacher might as well have intentionally left the student to come to grips with the conceptualization as part of the task conditions. In any case, *C* and the teacher did not succeed in creating sufficient intersubjective ground as to share the same conceptions, or for *C* to guide the teacher's support towards his actual doubt.

4.3.2. Strategic Support

Support addressed to mediate the actions of others in the context of writing activity was also analyzed in the observed lessons. Similarly as cognitive support, differences were identified in the way the teacher and peers offered strategic support. In Example 30 (Observation Transcript 1, Appendix 1.1), an instance of peer-derived strategic support can be observed:

Example 30

37 C Tú sabes si esto hay que hacerlo aquí.
38 L Yo creo que no. Yo creo que ella se lo va a llevar, estoy mas confundida… no mentira, no me creas nada, pero supongo que sí tengo que entregar algo.
39 C Si, ella ya dijo que sí, pero quiero empezar a escribir ya
40 M Yo estoy haciendo el…
41 C O sea, no hay que no hacer el ensayo todavía
42 L No, hay que hacer el punto de comparación.

In Example 30, the participants are involved in a mutual effort to make sense of the task conditions (submission and product). One of the features of this exchange is the uncertainty of the language used in the exchange. In turn 38, *L* uses mental processes (*creo, estoy confundida, supongo*) to denote the interpretive nature of her support. Despite her uncertainty, she still offers support (she might as well have said she did not know), which shows that she wished to maintain intersubjectivity rather than to guide *C*'s actions. Another feature is the projection of teacher's earlier strategic guidance (Turn 39), upon which students base their interpretations. In Turn 40, one of the student reports her own actions as an indirect form of strategic support. In the end, participants' uncertainties add up to form a rather certain conclusion regarding task deadline and product. This mutually constructed strategic support differs from the teacher-derived strategic support seen in Example 31 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2):

Example 31

168 T What are you doing? Why don't you follow the model? This is the information that you're going to use, but the model is clear, so try to follow the model.
169 S The thesis is… is
I want to…
171 T Review? But this is only the introduction, I need the whole thing.

172	S	I write that because I started like that in the book.
173	T	This is an introduction.
174	S	And I was writing the model
175	T	Ok, you can write the introduction and see if it has a thesis. That's the only thing you can do.
176	S	I think that is good because I see in the model and I take some structures
177	T	I'm not saying anything. I'm just saying that you can only review the introduction now because the rest is not complete. (*The teacher turns to another studen*t.)

Unlike the peer-derived strategic support in Example 30, the teacher in Example 31 is quite directive. This is evidenced in the use of direct questioning in Turn 168, interruption in turn 171 and obligation modals in Turn 175. The exchange starts when the teacher notices the student drifting off the pedagogical agenda set for the class, part of which involved use of a model to guide writing. Despite the student's claims of following the model, the teacher addresses the student's attention towards a specific problematic area (not including a thesis statement in his introduction). The student, however, interprets this is an evaluative intervention, as seen in his counter appraisal of his work as good (Turn 176).

4.3.3. Evaluative support

Learners often feel the need to receive ongoing assessment of their performance prior to submission of their final product. This represents a distinct form of support, here named evaluative support. In Example 32 (Observation Transcript 2, Appendix 1.2), evaluative support being exchanged during a joint writing task can be observed:

Example 32

157	*F*	I haven't written anything at all. I'm just writing nonsense.
158	*L*	Why?
159	*F*	I'm just improvising here. I haven't written anything good.
160	*L*	Nothing at all…
161	*F*	You seem to be doing something good there.
162	*L*	No, man. I'm writing a damn bad thing here.
163	*F*	
164	*L*	No pude porque me tocó borrar todo lo que tenía y ese fue el que hice.
165	*F*	Yo empecé aquí pero tu habías traído ya algo de la casa.
166	*L*	No, yo no hice nada.

In Example 32, *F* and *L*, who had been working jointly in producing their own draft of a compare and contrast essay, engage in mutually assessing what they had written so far. *F* is quite critical about his own product. He assesses it as insufficient and improvised, based on the fact that he had not prepared anything in advance. Alternatively, he appraises his peer's product as good enough. The subjective state inscribed in *F'*s appreciation is probably frustration at not being able to produce a satisfactory draft. *L* seems to have become aware of *F'*s state of frustration, for which he decides to speak self-derogatorily of his own work as well. By doing this, *Lucas* is able to maintain primary intersubjectivity with his peer. Knowing that his peer does not consider his work good enough might give *F* a way to gauge the quality of his own work. Evaluative support in SS joint activity interaction is thus reflective and comparative. Teacher evaluative support, on the other hand, relies more on the teacher's criteria for task quality, as seen in Example 33 (Observation Transcript 1, Appendix 1.1):

Example 33

67 C: Miss, this is a good question?
68 T: Mmm… I… your handwriting is so small I can't see. (*Reading aloud*) Differences between homeopathy and naturopathy
69 C: Similarities and cons.
70 T: Aha. The cons? What is the cons?
71 C: Eh..
72 T: And differences?
73 C: And differences…. Eh… and the thEsis, the thesis, in what part of the paragraph?
74 T: You can put it at the end of the paragraph. ...
75 C: Of the first paragraph?
76 T: Of the first paragraph…
77 C: I'm going to start here to say the medical models, the medical systems that treat the dicEs.
78 T the disease
79 C The disease in xxx or biomedical knowledge
80 T That is a good beginning.

C, amidst writing the introduction for his essay, calls the teacher to provide evaluative support for his writing. The teacher inquires further into the students' writing procedure, attempting to understand what he means by *cons*. In turn 77, the student requests evaluative support for his procedure, which he receives in turn 80. In both instances of evaluative support, it was the teacher who decided what was good and what was not. This contrasts with the comparative forms of peer assessment seen in Example 32. It could be argued, however, that evaluative support of a more direct type as in Example 33 is what some learners expect to receive.

One of the running issues in this exploration has been learners' ability to provide complex forms of support based on their capacity for intersubjective thinking. These forms of support, classified here within the cognitive, strategic and evaluative realms; have been shown to differ from teacher-mediated forms of support. This difference has been observed to lie mostly in the asymmetrical intersubjective positioning which emerges in most

classroom-based teacher-student interaction. Student-student interaction has, on the other hand, been observed to lead to more symmetrical, participative and interpretive support. Whether teacher-mediated or peer-mediated forms of support have any advantage over each other, or whether they bear particular advantages, is yet to be studied. What this study contributes to reaffirm is that student-student interaction could have a far larger influence on the learning process, particularly in the learning to write process, than traditionally assumed.

The exchange in Example 33 shows that, by relying on their intersubjective capacity, participants are able to provide varying degrees of explicitness in their support, much as described in dynamic assessment literature (Van Compernolle, 2010). What can be observed is a sequence of different forms of support, each leading to a narrowing of the attention focus and a gradual reduction in the level of difficulty of the "novice's" response. This contributes to answering the question on whether learners are capable of complex forms of support in the absence of teacher-mediated interaction. Not only are learners able of giving fine-tuned support to a less knowledgeable peer, but they are also capable of transferring forms of support originated in their own heuristic competency-building efforts. In other words, learners are able to support others with forms of mediation that have worked for themselves.

These forms of meditational transfer show that support given by peers in the context of joint activity can sometimes be more fluid and meaningful than other forms of mediation (e.g. teacher mediation or artifact mediation). In the case of teacher mediation, it has been observed that the strategic, cognitive and evaluative support provided is often more direct than peers' support. At the moment of being called into the activity, the teacher usually

lacks the background of the activity circumstances which led to a particular difficulty, being the learner's job to acquaint the teacher into this background , that is, to build an intersubjective context from which adequate support can be provided. However, as observed in some of the analyzed examples, the construction of intersubjective ground between students and the teacher can sometimes be troubled by different factors, such as the teacher having a preconceived idea of the needed support, the student being conditioned to view the teacher as an authoritative voice (rather than as a thinking partner), and the students' linguistic limitation at the time of asking for support. To overcome these potential barriers to intersubjective supportive interaction, teachers might wish to allow time for learners to clearly shape the background of the difficulty, and to build the sufficient rapport as to lead the teacher's support in the intended direction. In other words, for adequate supportive intervention, there needs to be a disposition to create a shared mental space with the learner.

5. Conclusions

The central question guiding this study concerns the process through which intersubjectivity is constructed in undergraduate EFL activity. Specifically, an exploration of the role of intersubjectivity in achieving shared understanding, engaging teacher's and students' perspectives and different forms of teacher and learner support was carried out.

Though not exhaustive, this exploration has shed some insights into how intersubjectivity is constructed in undergraduate EFL activities. In general, several factors were found to affect the process through which learners and teachers in the class reach a common mental space, including previous beliefs and attitudes, participants' goals, the positioning existing between the participants, the cultural rules underlying interaction and linguistic ability. A brief summary of tentative answers to the objectives set for this study is provided next.

The first objective of this study was to describe the process through which shared understanding is created in teacher-student and student-student EFL writing activities. In this regard, social cognition theory stresses the importance of shared understanding in constructing new knowledge in collaborative group activity (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006). The results from this study amount to this claim by showing that, when efforts at achieving common understanding fail, groups become socially disaggregate units with each member responding to their own subjectivities (e.g. reasoning, making decisions, evaluating and solving problems based on their own beliefs, knowledge and values). The question is how individuals go about matching their subjectivities in the process of making each other knowledgeable of concepts and procedural skills important to task completion.

In building intersubjectivity, two moments were found to be of particular relevance in this particular study: signaling missing knowledge and co-constructing knowledge. Most missing knowledge signals identified in the observed activities concerned procedures and conceptualizations. Concerning procedures, some of the exchanges involved two of the participants having different views of what needed to be done. In teacher-student interaction, the teacher's subjectivity prevailed over that of learners, the teacher frequently passing ready-made procedural and conceptual knowledge on to them without significantly integrating their knowledge. This unidirectional construction of shared understanding could still be considered intersubjective, in that the other party (the learners) is attending to a different perspective. However, failure on the teacher's part to consider learners' perspective decreased the potential of shared understanding construction, thus being less intersubjective than student-student interaction. This form of shared understanding construction was named *unidirectional*, since it was learners' job to approach the mental frames which they teacher had in her mind.

On the other hand, student-student interaction was found to lead to more intersubjective shared understanding construction as evident in mutual engagement between participants' perspectives and cumulativeness in interaction and knowledge management. Symmetry in social positioning and sharing a common motive (that of understanding a common aspect of reality) were some of the factors quoted in explaining the relative ease of peers in achieving more intersubjective shared understanding construction. Still, overreliance upon own beliefs or attitudes towards group work prevented intersubjective interaction in some of the observed exchanges.

In general, the construction of shared understanding in EFL group writing activities was observed to be affected by participants' readiness to engage in joint thinking with others, a condition which in teacher-student interaction seemed to be limited.

In close connection with the first objective, the second objective was to analyze the extent to which the teacher's and learners' perspectives of the activity became engaged as the writing unit unfolded. Using an Activity Theory framework, the teacher's and students' perspectives of writing activity goals, main problems and satisfactors and the rules and roles governing the activity were analyzed in terms of engagement.

Regarding the activity goal, the teacher and learners did not always share a common perspective on why the activity was being carried out in a given way. Specifically, the teacher's and learners' perception of the so-called "team-based" methodology revealed perspective mismatches. Whist for the teacher this group dynamics favored collaborative learning, some students viewed it as an ineffective approach and preferred more teacher-led learning methodologies. For some of them, this negative appraisal of group work was founded on misconceptions of the activity goal, which they assumed to be related to the practice of spoken English.

Another mismatching aspect analyzed in the observed activities was what the teacher and learners defined as problems, which seemed to influence the type of solutions or "satisfactors" sought by them. Whereas the teacher perceived the procedure of writing a compare-and-contrast essay as the main source of difficulties, for learners, most problems arose out of the inability to comprehend the challenging language and presentation of the unit input. Due to this mismatch, the teacher often perceived students as not profiting from

her instructional efforts, and students perceived themselves as being all on their own during the task.

The conversational rules underpinning teacher-student interaction configured an asymmetric interactional frame in which perspective engagement was unlikely. Due to the superior status culturally assigned to the teacher, it was hard for learners to put their perspectives forward and negotiate those of the teacher.

In connection with the above, the third objective was to analyze the emergence of intersubjectivity in student-student and teacher-student support in EFL writing activity. In student-student interaction, it was found that learners are capable of providing each other with complex forms of support involving adjusted levels of difficulty (scaffolding). It has been assumed that these forms of support are intersubjective since, in order to scaffold their peers, learners need to be aware of their peers' mental states while performing a task, including their level of comprehension, their motives and mood states related to task performance, such as frustration. Students were also found to provide forms of support which corresponded more closely to those sought by their peers. For instance, in seeking strategic support, peers did not normally offer cognitive or evaluative support. Thanks to this, learner-given support was found to have more direct applicability to the task.

Teacher-provided support, on the other hand, seemed less intersubjective due to the fact that the teacher often failed to discover what learners actually needed upon seeking support. The teacher would often offer support which did not match the type of support sought, partly because no previous exploration of learners' ongoing mental space had taken place.

It would be naïve, however, to affirm that learner support is better than teacher support, or that learners should take charge of entirely supporting each other. It has been claimed in this study that both teacher and student-derived support accomplish different functions, teacher-derived support being more useful in conceptual construction and student support being more useful in conceptual application and consolidation. This claim, however, needs further research.

Exploration of the observed lessons from a sociocultural perspective, more specifically though the lens of intersubjective activity construction, has allowed a refreshed view of student-student interaction in the context of undergraduate EFL group activity. It has made visible otherwise taken-for-granted issues in learners' collaborative dialogue, such as the intersubjectivity in developing supportive interaction. In a larger sense, sociocultural concepts interwoven in this study (such as mediation, collaboration and activity) have afforded a wider representation of language learning, communication and interaction. Under such traditional conceptual frameworks as the acquisition model of language learning and the conduit metaphor of communication, much of the richness of meaning in group activity can boil down to discrete linguistic phenomena, leaving out the whole social and cultural context which shapes language learning.

The answers provided by this study concerning the construction of intersubjectivity are not conclusive. The process through which learners maintain or lose intersubjectivity is not clear enough yet, nor is the role of different forms of mediation in intersubjectivity construction. It also remains to be clarified how learners' prior learning background affects intersubjectivity construction and whether intersubjective support has a longer lasting mediational influence than non-intersubjective support. Indeed, there are limitations in this

study, foremost of which is the fact that the observations were limited to a specific group of learners for a limited span of time. For more reliable and valid conclusions to be reached, further observation in various contexts for longer periods of time might be necessary.

Despite the above-mentioned limitations, this study warrants some implications for English teaching. First of all, it is important to consider evidence that the teacher's assumptions about what students need or should do can prevent them from establishing intersubjectivity with students, since they can trouble the creation of shared knowledge necessary for comprehension of what students really mean. Students are at a disadvantage when establishing intersubjectivity with teachers because they need to create a common mental space with someone whose higher capacity and status they are aware of. Under these circumstances, students might converge with teacher's views and conceptualizations, not because they genuinely agree with them, but because they conform to an institutionally set intersubjective positioning in which teachers have traditionally had the last say. Linguistic disparity does further disfavor to students, since it prevents them from confidently and clearly expounding their concerns and views to the teacher, who, unlike them, possesses all the linguistic tools to make his/her claims valid. Differences in language proficiency thus contribute to an unequal balance of power in favor of the teacher.

Most teachers mean well in imposing their views, partly because these views are assumed to represent the competencies which the course, syllabus, institution and society in general expect students to acquire. However, despite the well-meaning motive, teachers might fail at shaping students' understanding if, before, they have not attempted to understand the mental frames under which students are operating. Failure to do so implies

an imposition of the teacher's way of conceptualizing, which may lead either to resistance towards it or to passive adoption of it for the sake of pleasing the teacher.

For these reasons, it is important for teachers to challenge their assumptions about what students need or should do, and be open to create a common mental background with them, that is, being willing to see students as thinking partners. This requires listening and attending to what students say, trying to see beyond the motives and operating frames which guide the students' discourse. After having listened to and considered students' underlying mental frames, the teacher might want to build on the existent frames or complement them with the more refined views that he/she possesses. In this way, dialog with the teacher will not result in an imposition of a way of conceptualizing, but in a genuine process of socially guided construction of the mind.

As far as implications for research are concerned, special consideration of research methods for studying intersubjectivity in real classroom settings needs to be made. One of the main research difficulties was obtaining samples of genuine learner-learner interaction during activity performance. Due to the real-time nature of the interaction, it is important to focalize a specific group of learners and to continue obtaining audiotaped material from the same group so as to study how intersubjectivity unfolds in the same group. Another difficulty lies in obtaining unbiased narration during stimulated recall protocols. When recalling a task previously performed, learners tend to sway their narrative towards their current subjective states, instead of looking back at the events objectively. That is why one-on-one interviews on specific moments of the task can lead to richer data than extended conversations on the whole task. One-on-one interviews focused on a single event allow

vision of phenomena from multiple perspectives, thus being more qualitatively rich and reliable.

An interesting future line of research would be the exploration of how supportive intersubjectivity evolves throughout coursework, focusing on changes in student-student and teacher-student support at different stages and for different language skills. It would also be interesting to examine the role of age, gender and academic background variables in intersubjectivity construction, specifically in perspective engagement. Finally, the construction of intersubjectivity in intercultural settings could be an intriguing avenue of research.

6. References

Atkinson, M. (1994). *Our master's voices: The language and body language of politics.* London: Methuen.

Aljaafreh, A., & Lantolf, J.P. (1994). Negative feedback as regulation and second language learning in the zone of proximal development. *The Modern Language Journal*, 78, 465–483.

Bachman, L. F. and A. S. Palmer. (1982). The construct validation of some components of communicative proficiency. *TESOL Quarterly,* 16 (4), 449-465.

Bakhtin, M. M. (1990). *Art and answerability: Early philosophical essays*. Austin: University of Texas Press.

Barnes, D. & Todd, F.(1995).*Communication and Learning Revisited.* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.

Brown, B. (1977). Face saving and face restoration in negotiation. In D. Druckman (Ed.), *Negotiations: Social-psychological perspectives* (pp. 275–300). London: Sage.

Crotty, M. (1998). *The foundations of social research: meaning and perspective in the research process.* London: Sage.

Davin, K.J., & Donato, R. (2013). Student collaboration and teacher-directed classroom dynamic assessment: A complementary pairing. *Foreign Language Annals*, 46 (2), 126-140.

Donato, R. (1994). Collective scaffolding in second language learning. In .J. P. Lantolf & G. Appel (Eds.), *Vygotskian approaches to second language research* (pp. 33-56). Nonvood, NJ: Abblex.

Edwards, D.(1997). *Discourse and Cognition.* London: Sage.

Engeström, Y. (1987). *Learning by expanding: an activity theoretical approach to developmental research.* Helsinki: Orienta-Konsultit.

Engeström, Y. (1999). Activity theory and individual social transformation. In Y. Engeström, R. Miettinen & R. Punamaki (Eds.) *Perspectives on activity theory* (pp. 203-215). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Engeström, Y.(2001). Expansive learning at work: Towards an activity theoretical reconceptualization. *Journal of Education and Work*, 14 (2), 133-156.

Fairclough, N. (1995). *Critical Discourse analysis: The critical study of language.* London: Longman

Flower, L. and Hayes, J. (1981). A cognitive process theory of writing. *College Composition and Communication,* 32 (4), 365 – 387.

Gallagher, S. and Hutto, D.(2000). Understanding others through primary interaction and narrative practice. In J. Zlatev, T. Racine, C. Sinha & E. Itkonen (Eds.), *The shared mind: perspectives on intersubjectivity* (pp.17 - 38).Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Halliday, M. & Matthiessen, C. (2004). *An introduction to functional grammar.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Hinkel, E. (Ed.) (2011). *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning.* London: Routledge.

Hobson, J.A. & Hobson, R.P. (2008). Identification: The missing link between joint attention and imitation?" *Development and Psychopathology,* 19, 411‑431.

Lantolf, J. & Thorne, S. (2006). *Sociocultural theory and the genesis of second language development.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Lantolf, J. (Ed.) (2000). *Sociocultural theory and second language learning.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Leontiev, A. (1981). *Psychology and the language learning process.* Oxford: Pergamon Press.

Long, M. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. C. Ritchie & T. K. Bhatia (Eds.), *Handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 413 – 468). San Diego: Academic Press.

Luria, A.R. (1981). *Language and cognition.* New York, NY: Wiley.

Martin, J. & White, P. (2005). *The language of evaluation.* New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan.

Matusov, E. (2001). Intersubjectivity as a means of informing teaching design for a community of learners' classroom. *Teacher and Teacher Training,* 17 (2), 383 – 402.

Matusov, E., & White, C. (1996). Defining the concept of open collaboration from a sociocultural framework. *Cognitive Studies: The Bulletin of the Japanese Cognitive Science Society,* 3(4), 101-123.

Mercer, N. (2000). *Words and minds: How we use language to think together.* London: Routledge.

Richards, K. (2003). *Qualitative inquiry in TESOL*. Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.

Rogoff, B. (1990). *Apprenticeship in thinking. Cognitive development in social context.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Rommetveit, R. (1985). Language acquisition as increasing linguistic structuring of experience and symbolic behavior control.In J. V. Wertsch (Ed.), *Culture communication, and cognition: Vygotskian perspectives* (pp.340-356). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rommetviet, R.(1974). *On message structure: A framework for the study of language and communication.* New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Rosado, N. (2012). Contingent interaction: A case study in a Colombian EFL classroom. *Zona Próxima* 17, 154-175.

Stake, R. (1995). *The art of case study research.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.,

Stern, D. (1985). *The interpersonal world of the infant*. New York, NY: Basic Books.

Susswein, N. & Racine, T.P. (2000). Sharing mental states: Causal and definitional issues in intersubjectivity. In J. Zlatev, T. Racine, C. Sinha & E. Itkonen (Eds.), *The*

shared mind: perspectives on intersubjectivity (pp.141 - 160). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Swain, M., Kinnear, P. & Steinman, L. (2011). *Sociocultural theory in second language education*. London: Multilingual Matters.

Swain, M. (2000). The output hypothesis and beyond: Mediating acquisition through collaborative dialogue. In J. P. Lantolf (Ed.), *Sociocultural theory and second language learning* (pp. 97 – 114). Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Tomasello, M., Kruger, A. & Ratner, H. (1993). Cultural learning. *Behavioral and Brain Sciences,* 16, 495-552.

Trevarthen, C. (1979). Communication and cooperation in early infancy: A description of primary intersubjectivity.In M. Bullowa (Ed.), *Before speech: The beginning of interpersonal communication* (pp.22-48). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Trevarthen, C. (1979). Communication and cooperation in early infancy: A description of primary intersubjectivity. In M. Bullowa (Ed.), *Before speech* (pp. 321‑347). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press

Trevarthen, C. and Hubley, P. (1978). Secondary intersubjectivity: Confidence, confiding and acts of meaning in the first year. In A. Lock (Ed.), *Action, gesture and symbol: The emergence of language* (pp.183‑229). London: Academic Press. Jossey-Bass.

Van Compernolle, R. (2011). Developing second language sociopragmatic knowledge through concept-based instruction: a microgenetic case study. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 17, 1-17.

Van Dijk, T. (1977). *Text and context: Explorations in the semantics and pragmatics of discourse.* London: Longman.

Van Lier, L. (1996). *Interaction in the language curriculum: awareness, autonomy and authenticity.* London: Longman.

Verhagen, A. (2005). *Constructions of intersubjectivity: discourse, syntax and cognition.* Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Voloshinov, V. (1973). *Marxism and the philosophy of language.* New York: Seminar Press.

Vygotsky, L. S. (1978). *Mind in society: The development of higher psychological processes*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J. (1991). *Voices of the mind. A sociocultural approach to mediated action.* Cambridge: MA: Harvard University Press.

Wertsch, J. V. (1979). From social interaction to higher psychological processes: A clarification and application of Vygotsky's theory. *Human Development*, 22(1), 1-22.

Wertsch, J., Del Río, P. & Álvarez, A. (Eds.) (1995). *Sociocultural studies of mind.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Yin, R. K. (1997). The abridged version of case study research: Design and method. In L. Bickman & D.J. Rog (Eds.), *Handbook of applied social research methods* (pp. 229 - 259). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Yin, R.K. (2009). *Case study research: Design and methods* (4th Ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Zlatev, J., Racine, T., Sinha, C., & Itkonen, E. (2000). Intersubjectivity: What makes us human? In J. Zlatev, T. Racine, C. Sinha & E. Itkonen (Eds.), *The shared mind: perspectives on intersubjectivity* (pp.1 - 16). Amsterdam: John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Appendixes

Apppendix 1.1: Observation Transcript 1

Abbreviations:

ASU: Achieving shared understanding

CCK: Co-constructing knowledge

PT: Projection

EK: Exchanging knowledge

SMK: Signaling missing knowledge

SI: Supportive intersubjectivity

ReqS: Requested support

RS: Received support

ACTIVITY 1			
	Speaker	Turns	Comment
1	L	Ahh.. bueno… esto es lo que estás haciendo, es en este, entonces es en español.	ASU: SMK: Task conditions
2	C	Hay que hacerlo en inglés.	ASU: CCK: Task conditions
3	L	Es que hay que buscar el punto de comparación.	ASU: Task purpose
4	C	Ese es el punto, que es que no lo encuentro.	ASU: Signaling missing knowledge – conceptualization-
5	M	No te dije que xxx	ASU: Self-projection - verbal
6	C	Claro que sí, yo sé que es lo natural y sé xxx como que el humano está ahí y los medios occidentales son como un bando, mientras que…	ASU: CCK: conceptualization – - PT: Self-projection - mental
7	M	Lo de las hierbas es como una rama	ASU:CCK: conceptualization – -
8	C	es como una rama que tú vas a comparar.	ASU: CCK: conceptualization – -
9	F	pero puedes hacerle…	ASU: CCK: procedure
10	C	lo naturalista puede ser un humanistic… entonces tú cómo vas a comparar un man natural con un xxx teacher! Miss!	ASU: CCK: Conceptualization –- PT: Refusing other's perspective

11	L	es que se llama alternative	ASU:CCK: conceptualization – affirming
12	M	hahahaha	Laughter
13	L	eso es alternative… humanistic es más espiritual	ASU:CCK: Conceptualization-- affirming
14	M	No me parece…	PT: Refusing other's perspective
15	F	apoyo, apoyo…	PT: Accepting other's perspective
16	L	No, porque esto no se está enfocando en XXX ni nada…	ASU: CCK: Conceptualization PT: Refusing other's perspective
17	C	(talking to the teacher) If we have to compare this xxx… for example a CIA…	ASU: SMK
18	T	Yes…	
19	C	Aha, I don't see the relation, for example the biomedical, humanistic is a really different but in the c… aja ese	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization-
20	T	Ok	
21	L	in the camps??	
22	C	I don't see to..	ASU:SMK: Conceptualization -
23	L	the point of comparation	
24	T	The similarities?	
25	C	Uhmm..	
26	L	yes…	
27	T	But I could see for example, I see similarities between the biomedical and homeopathic… I think there are certain things…	ASU: CCK: SMK: Conceptualization – -
28	L	and the naturopathy…	ASU:CCK:EK: Conceptualization – -
29	T	But then, choose the other one… if you don't find a lot of similarities between the biomedical and the CAMPS, then compare the humanistic and the CAMPS.	ASU: CCK: Guiding – Procedure –
30	C	Aaand teacher…	
31	T	Aaand Carlos… yes?	
32	L	Anyway we can write about the difference and the	ASU:CCK:EK: Procedure – /-

		similarities…	
33	T	Yes. And the other thing I would like to highlight is that, in the back, they recommend that you plan, and I would suggest that, if you're going for the block style, do a little plan like this, to help you prepare what you want to write about. If you're going by the point by point…	ASU:CCK: Guiding – Procedure – ASU:CCK: Guiding – Procedure – -
34	L	Is más specific…	ASU: CCK: Appraising – procedure
35	T	No… the difference is that in every paragraph you touch the points for both type of medicine. Here, in this model, they take one paragraph for one type of medicine and the other paragraph for the other type of medicine, and here is whatever aspect you want to highlight you do both in the same paragraph… for the both, for both types of medicine, so do your plan. That will help you.	ASU:CCK: Arguing – procedure-/ – ASU:CCK:EK/directing attention - procedure – / – ASU:CCK: Guiding – procedure – –
36	L	hay que hacer esa vaina de nuevo entonces.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: procedure – –
37	l	¿Tú sabes si esto hay que hacerlo aquí?	ASU:SMK: Task conditions
38	L	Yo creo que no. Yo creo que ella se lo va a llevar, estoy mas confundida… no mentira, no me creas nada, pero supongo que sí tengo que entregar algo.	ASU:CCK: Hypothesizing – procedure ASU:CCK: Hypothesizing – task conditions
39	C	Si, ella ya dijo pero quiero empezar a escribir ya	ASU:CCK:EK: Task conditions
40	M	Yo estoy haciendo el…	ASU: AP: : action
41	C	O sea, no hay que hacer el ensayo todavía	ASU: CCK: Affirming: Task conditions – – –
42	L	No, hay que hacer el punto de comparación.	ASU:CCK: EK: Task conditions – – – ASU:CCK:EK: Affirming – procedure -
43	C	Qué se hizo XXX?	
44	L	XXX?	
45	C	Eso…	
46	F	Yo estoy haciendo un borrador porque no estoy seguro.	ASU: AP: : Action
47	C	Pero es que es un borrador	ASU: CCK: Affirming: procedure
48	L	Aja…	ASU:CCK: Affirming: procedure – – -
49	F	¿Sí?	ASU: SMK: Procedure -
50	C	Si…	ASU:CCK: Affirming: procedure

51	L	Ya sabes con qué lo vas a comparar?	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization
52	C	Si sí. Ya lo pillé. ¿Tú cual vas a hacer?	ASU: AP: Claim ASU: CCK: Inquiring: conceptualization-
53	L	Voy a leer esto pa ver cómo es la vuelta, pero no sé con qué lo voy a comparar.	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization:
54	C	Sí pillas, el humanistic…	ASU:AP: Assisting
55	L	Yo no me voy a complicar, tú ya no cogiste el humanistic.	ASU: AP: : Action ASU: CCK:
56	C	El humanistic es que ve xxx	ASU:AP: Assisting
57	L	sí	ASU:CCK: Responding – Conceptualization – – -
58	C	Este también	ASU: AP: Assisting
59	L	sí? Tu feeling va ahí.	
60	C	Claro marica, lo que tú sientes…	
61	L	hahahaha… te estoy mamando gallo…	
62	C	Pero este también…. De todo tu ser (speaking humorously)	
63	L	Yo creo que sí…	ASU:CCK: Hypothesizing – conceptualization –
64	C	Mira, entonces son los similarities	ASU:AP: Assisting
65	L	Xxxx Sí, si. En pocas palabras, sí.	ASU:CCK: Affirming – conceptualization –
67	C	Pero ven acá, humanista no es traditional?	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization -
68	L	Pero es que no hagas así porque te vas a embolatar, marica.	ASU:CCK: Guiding: procedure –
69	C	Oye, yo digo para tirarla ahí.	ASU: CCK: Responding: procedure – – - in
70	L	Pero por qué no te concentras más en el cuerpo, el cuerpo del trabajo que es más complicado, me parece a mí.	ASU.CCK: Guiding: procedure – – – ASU: CCK: Appraising: Conceptualization: – -
71	C	Ey, como se escribe similitud en español?	SI: RS :Learners: : Cognitive-Language:
72	M	Similarities	SI: Action supporter: responding. RS: Cognitive/ language
73	L	Simila… ¿dónde está?... similita…	SI: Action requester: rehearsing SI: Action requester
74	C	Simili…	SI: Action requester: rehearsing
75	L	Similitaries	SI: Action requester:

			rehearsing
76	F	Similarities	SI: Action requester: Rehearsing
77	L	Se dice si-mi-la-ri-ties..	SI: Action supporter: Facilitating. RS: Cognitive / language
78	C	¿Sí?	SI: Action requester: - expectation
79	L	Mira	SI: Supporter action: Guiding attention. RS: Cognitive/ language
80	C	XXX no es con doble ve?	SI: Action requester: - expectation
81	L	No, está mal escrito. Mira ve, es así. Si-mi-li	SI: Action supporter: appraising. R.S. Evaluative SI: Action supporter: Guiding attention. RS. : Cognitive / language SI: Action Supporter: Facilitating. RS: Cognitive
82	C	Similar..	SI: Action requester: rehearsing
83	L	ri-ties	SI: Action supporter: facilitating. RS: Cognitive/ language
ACTIVITY TWO			
84	L	Teacher… teacher, in this class, I can use this model for the essay only…	ASU: SMK: Task conditions: In
85	T	Only not	ASU:CCK: Guiding – Task conditions – - -
86	L	I checked the list for contractor and	ASU: CCK: Arguing – conceptualization – – –
87	T	that's for the compare and contrast essay	ASU:CCK: Guiding – procedure – – - in
88	L	But I'm stuck with the…	ASU:SMK: Conceptualization:
89	T	You're what?	
90	L	I'm stuck with the..	ASU:SMK: Conceptualization:
91	T	You're stuck with the differences. You need to write a plan. Do a plan. You need an introduction. What style are you using? This style or this style?	ASU:CCK: Affirming – procedure ASU: CCK: Guiding: procedure – – –

			ASU:CCK: Inquiring – procedure ASU: CCK: directing attention - procedure
92	L	Este	ASU:CCK: Responding: procedure –
93	T	Anyways you need an introduction	ASU: CCK: Guiding – procedure –
94	L	Ok.	ASU:CCK: Acquiescing- procedure – - -
95	T	And a conclusion…	ASU: CCK: Guiding – procedure – self- – -
96	L	Ok	ASU:CCK: Acquiescing- procedure – - -
97	T	In the introduction you need to compare and contrast the two things and you have to establish what are the things that you're going to contrast and what are the differences. So, before you write you need to have it clear, what are the features that are similar and what are the features that are different, the ones that you're going to contrast. (*The teacher turns to a different student*)	ASU: CCK: EK: Conceptualization ASU:CCK: Guiding – procedure –
98	L	Carlos, hay que hacer una introducción primero	ASU: AP: Assisting
99	T	Is anyone missing here?	
100	L	Sindy Where is she? She's not here xxx	
101	M	Yeah, she…	
102	T	Ah, yeah.. she's checking something. (*Addressing the whole class*) You can work two or three on the same topic so you can have the contents so you identify the features ta ta ta, and then the writing you do individually. Yes?	ASU: CCK: Guiding – procedure
103	L	(*Speaking to Christian*)Ese fue el que ella dijo, biomedical y homeopathy. Bueno, el de homeopathy… ya tú clasificaste el de homeopathy	PT: Verbal projection - teacher ASU: AP: Verbalizing ASU:CCK: Inquiring – procedure
104	C	Aja	ASU: CCK: Acquiescing – procedure
105	L	Entonces no importa cualquier doctor que te la aplique. Es una bacteria que te la aplican y ya.	ASU:CCK: EK: Conceptualization
106	C	O sea, es más naturalista.	ASU: CCK: Drawing conclusion – conceptualization---
107	L	No, sí. Pero hay unos más complejos que otros.	ASU:CCK: Affirming: conceptualization –

			ASU:CCK: Appraising – conceptualization –
108		…	
109	L	Cuál cogiste? Hay dos maneras de hacerlo. Point by point o block style, eso.	ASU:CCK: Inquiring – procedure ASU:AP: Verbalizing-conceptualization ASU:CCK: Guiding-procedure-self--
110	T:	OK, can I have your attention a minute? Thank you. Ah.. I know you are only beginning to write now and it takes time, but I think you need to read more ´cause you're not writing because you don't know what to write about, because you have no ideas that you can incorporate into your writing. So, I suggest that this is your homework. Read more the texts that you have in the textbook , refine your ideas for the essay and I would like you to bring this chart we have in the models with your ideas, the ideas that you're going to use in your paragraphs, in your essays, sorry. Besides that, I want you to reread the sentence structure material that you have in blackboard and also reread the writing supplement that we worked in the first week. Reread the information about academic perspective writing that's also in your book and, with that clarified, on Wednesday the… what is the date? 20th? On the 20th we're going to devote sixty minutes to finish your writing, so you'd better have everything clear so you write here. I don't want you to write outside because I want you to be here so I can guide you and you can work together with your peers. Questions?	ASU.CCK: ing attention – conceptualization PT: Mental projection – learners ASU: CCK: Guiding-procedure-self- PT: Mental projection – learners ASU:CCK: Guiding-procedure-

Appendix 1.2: Observation Transcript 2

ACTIVITY THREE			
1	C	XXX! (*The teacher calls out the teacher's name,*)	
2	T	I notice a very… I notice a confusion . You think you're writing an argumentative essay. You don't have to convince anyone. This is just facts. This is raw information, factual information. No grand openings, introductions with great ideas. No, point by point, down to earth. Very simple. It's so simple you are confused. You're trying to impress the reader. You don't need to impress the reader in an academic article like this. Just present the facts. You're comparing, compare. You don't need to begin with these big introductions with rhetorical questions. No. Ok? No… it's simple, like that.	PT: Mental projection – learners ASU:CCK: EK: Conceptualization – - ASU:CCK: Guiding-procedure
3	C	Miss, this is a good question?	SI: ReIn: S.Teacher-Question – - Evaluative
4	T	Mmm… I… your handwriting is so small I can't see. (Reading aloud) Differences between homeopathy and naturopathy	SI: Action Supporter: Analyzing product
5	C	Similarities and cons.	SI: Action requester
6	T	Aha. The cons? What is the cons?	SI: Action supporter
7	C	Eh..	
8	T	And differences?	SI: Action supporter
9	C	And differences…. Eh… and the thEsis, the thesis, in what part of the paragraph?	SI: Action requester: Echoing SI: ReIn: S.Teacher. Question – - Strategic
10	T	You can put it at the end of the paragraph. ...	SI: RS: Strategic - suggestive
11	C	Of the first paragraph?	SI: Action requester: Follow-up q.
12	T	Of the first paragraph…	SI: Action supporter: Responding
13	C	I'm going to start here to say the medical models, the medical systems that treat the dicEs.	SI: Action requester-RPA
14	T	the dicesase	SI: Action supporter – Correcting language
15	C	The dicease in chiropractic or biomedical knowledge?	SI: ReIn: S. Teacher: Question: : Cognitive
16	T	That is a good beginning.	SI: RS: Evaluative: Appraisal
17	C	Wait, and the other…	SI: Action requester: Follow-up q.

18	T	And ta ta ta ta ta ta which is ta ta ta (*the teacher goes to another student's seat*)	SI: RS: Strategic - modelling
20	L	The medical knowledge	SI: Cognitive
21	C	¿Cómo?	
23	L	The medical knowledge	SI: Cognitive
25	F	¿Será que puedo poner aquí al lao, de acuerdo a la misma economía que maneja el entorno ha influenciado en el tipo de medicina biomédica, de la manera como se utiliza	SI: ReIn: S.learner: In: RS: Strategic.
26	L	Aja, puede ser.	SI: Action supporter: Responding. RS: Strategic
27	F	Podemos decir…	SI: Action requester: Seeking opinión
28	L	¿Cómo?	
29	F	Podemos decir wanna	SI: Action requester: Seeking opinion
30	L	La vaina es que todo hay que hacerlo tan en serio, si o no?	SI: Action supporter: Providing rationale
31	F	Toca tomarlo en serio	SI: Action requester: echoing
32			
33	F	xxxx	
34	L	¿Cómo?	
35	F	La medicina quiropráctica, el objetivo de ella es poder coger todos los problemas y corregirlos acomodando cierta parte del cuerpo y aquí dice que esa idea está soportada en la natural ha… en la habilidad natural del cuerpo para curarse por sí mismo.	ASU:CCK: EK: Conceptualization PT: Verbal projection-textbook
36	L	Esa es la jugada interesante.	ASU: CCK: Appraising-conceptualization – - -
37	F	Ese no es el problema…. ¿sabes que significa quiropractic?	ASU: CCK: Inquiring – conceptualization
38	L	No, ¿qué significa?	ASU.CCK: SMK: Conceptualization ASU:CCK:Inquiring - conceptualization
39	F	You had a praxis action	ASU:CCK: EK: Conceptualization
40	L	xxx	
41	F	¿Aquí cómo se dice que ambos métodos que buscan la producción? acá lo interesante es que el tema de la salud lo tratan de una forma diferente xxx no sé que…	ASU:CCK: Inquiring – language ASU:CCK: Appraising-

42	L	xxx	
43	F	De todas formas acá la tratan de forma diferente.	
44	F	¿Cómo se dice salud?	SI: ReIn: S.Learner: : Req.S: Cognitive/ language
45	L	Health	SI: Action supporter: responding. RS: Cognitive/ language
46	F	¿Salud? Ok… to?	SI: Action requester: - expectation SI: Action requester: Accepting SI: ReIn: S.Learner: : Req.S: Cognitive/ language
47	L	Health	SI: Action supporter: Responding
48	F	To?	SI: ReIn: S.Learner: : Req.S: Cognitive/ language
49	L	Health…	SI: Action supporter: Responding
50	F	E- A	SI: Action requester: rehearsing
51	L	To health	SI: Action supporter: facilitating
52	F	(*reading aloud*) Go to cure everyone … I'm going to expose two models of medicine that have been xxx to the same… para tratar lo mismo. Different methods and differents points of view. (*Reading aloud*) Different methods to treat the head… No, no head, es healthy	SI: ReIn: S.Learner: Seeking opinion: In: RS: Evaluative
53	L	Healthy, ni que fuera saludable.	SI: Action supporter: Correcting language
54	F	¿Pero cómo digo que para tratar la salud?	SI: ReIn: S.Learner: : Req.S: Cognitive/ language
55	L	health	SI: Action supporter: Responding. RS: Cognitive/ Language
56	F	hEl?	SI: Action requester: rehearsing
57	L	heAlth… Te- ache,	SI: Action supporter: facilitating. RS: Cognitive/ language

59	F	Con diferentes tecnologías y objetivos	
60	L	Pues no sé, si yo me equivoco no hay nada interesante porque tienen el mismo objetivo que es tratar la salud humana.	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization: ASU: CCK: Hypothesizing: Conceptualization ASU:CCK: Arguing: Conceptualization.
61	F	Entonces ambas tienen un mismo proceso de interactuar.	ASU: CCK: Drawing conclusion: Conceptualization: : :
62	L	No sé, marica.	ASU: SMK: Conceptualization:
63	F	Yo coloqué que hacen lo mismo pero con distintos métodos	ASU:CCK: Affirming: Conceptualization: -:
64	L	La parte donde dice que la manera como ellas interactúan…	ASU: CCK: ing attention:
65	T	(*Speaking to the class*) Ten minutes… Oh, my God! And you're only on the introduction	
67	L	Teacher! Teacher XXX. I can start with the properties of this book? Is an introduction…No is an introduction pero is for start with xxx	SI: ReIn: S.Teacher: In: Seeking opinion. ReqS: Strategic
68	T	Which one are… which model are you following?	SI: Action supporter: requesting clarification
69	L	Ehh… this. The model of...	SI: Action requester: CPF
70	T	Of block? So what you normally… you explain and give an example of the action that you would like to highlight. Explain naturopathy briefly and give an example	SI: Action supporter: interrupting ASU: CCK: EK: Procedure: external : SI: Action supporter: ing. RS: Strategic
71	L	In this case is a paragraph for biomedical and anot…	SI: Action requester: CPF
72	T	And another one for the other, that's right. I mean, it's parallel. The same information that you present in one you present in the other. (*The teacher turns to a different student*)	SI: Action supporter: interrupting ASU:CCK: EK: Procedure: / SI: Action Supporter: ing. RS: Strategic
73	F	Me tocó cambiar todo lo que había hecho la clase pasada.	
74	L	Menos mal que yo no he hecho un carajo.	

75	T	(*Addressing the whole class*) Ok, could you stop there please. This is not an exam, you know. You think this is an exam and then you are so xxx. So, relax. This is practice. We're practicing how to address the writing of an essay. And after you finish that practice we're going to do some peer revision and this is not the one that I am going to assess. We will have another one. But I would like you to… first, I would like you to stop . Thank you. One, two three. Eyes on me. Thank you. I would like to highlight one thing that I have noticed. You have come to this writing with your ideas of writing, and I don't know what you wrote in level six. What did you write in level six?	ASU: CCK: ing attention: self PT: Mental projection-learners PT: Recursive adjustment: proleptic SI:SuIn: Reducing tension. ASU: CCK: ing attention: self PT: Mental projection-self: senser: learners PT: Mental projection: self ASU: CCK: Inquiring: past experience-
76	Ss	Descriptive…xxx	ASU:CCK: Responding: past experience
77	T	What did you write in level five?	ASU: CCK: Inquiring: past experience-
78	Ss	Argumentative…xxx	ASU:CCK: Responding: past experience
79	T	What do you normally write in your life?	ASU: CCK: Inquiring: past experience-
80	Ss	E-mails, letters…	ASU:CCK: Responding: past experience
81	T	You have noticed how you are influenced by your writing experience? Now what you are writing is an essay. It's a compare and contrast essay. In fact, I have the posters in my office. Factual information, there should be objective presentation. No emotions. No "I like, I think, I prefer" no no no. You just compare and contrast two things, two methods, two … whatever, and you can use in other	PT: Mental projection: learners PT: Recursive adjustment: proleptic ASU:CCK: EK: Conceptualization ASU: CCK: EK: Procedure

		area of your life. You have not followed the models. You intuitively have started writing the way you normally write, but you have ignored the model. I keep telling you, go and see the model but you are very attached to your previous writing and you ignore me. Now, I'm telling you, if you continue doing that, ignoring me, you are going to do really badly in your actual assessment because we have instructions for that and we're expected to write something similar, a compare and contrast essay which is factual, which is very simple, no big complications, just to the point, ok? This is so, so simple that you feel it is not good. I have this feeling from you. Is that right? This is just something simple. I need to write more, I need to impress, I need to creative complicated sentences. No. So, we need to review for the exam that we're having for Monday. Students: (Ah? Ah?) T: Yes. or we could negotiate: you could continue writing and finish your essay and then on Monday we do… the first hour we do the review and the second hour we do the exam. Whatever you would like.	PT: Mental projection: learners PT: Verbal projection: Self PT: Mental projection: Learners PT: Verbal projection: Self PT: Mental projection: Learners PT: RA: Proleptic: procedure PT: Mental projection: learners PT: Mental projection: self ASU:CCK: Inquiring: self PT: RA: Proleptic: procedure ASU:CCK: ing attention: task conditions ASU: CCK: Negotiating: task conditions
83	St.	The second option.	ASU: CCK: Negotiating: task conditions
84	T	Which is?	
85	St.	Review and exam	ASU: CCK: Negotiating: task conditions
86	T	Review first and exam second? The only… the only problem I see with that is that, if you have problems in some of the topics then, there won't be enough time for you to study individually.	ASU: CCK: Negotiating: task conditions ASU:CCK: Arguing: Task conditions:

		But, I can start telling you what the topics are. The topics are the topics from the unit. Unit 5, what do we have?	
87	St	No topics	
88	T	As a reading strategy we're doing note-taking, so note-taking you need to practice. As grammar, what do we have?	Off-task
89	Ss	Noun clauses	Off-task
90	T	Noun clauses, yes? Yes. Also, in terms of language, what do you need to revise?	Off-task
91	St	The vocabulary	Off-task
92	T	Vocabulary. Right? Vocabulary from, specialized vocabulary related to the texts but also general vocabulary related to the topic. Right? What else? The level 7 writing supplement. Remember we did that? At the beginning, the activity, the quiz… we worked on that and you produced your sentences and all that. My recommendation is that you study that, do the exercises again, study the vocabulary. There is a long, long section on vocabulary of the unit, so make sure you review the vocabulary from the unit, definitions, of course, synonyms, anthonyms. Ok? So, then, continue writing. Finish your writing and then we do some peer-editing.	Off-task Off-task Off-task
93	St	Some what, teacher?	
94	T	Peer editing. Eh… you could go for a short break… five minutes, you could go to the bathroom or have a snack. You can take it now. Stand up, stretch your legs, walk, drink water, have something to eat and be back… St: (bring something for your teacher) T: Bring something for your teacher. So, break time! Ten minutes? Ok.	ASU: CCK: Negotiating: task conditions Off-task
95	T	Stand up. Stop Juan.	Off-task
96	St.	No…	Off-task
97	T	Stop for now.	Off-task
98	St.	Yeah, yeah.	Off-task
99	T	What are you doing? Facebooking?	Off-task
100	St	In the break.	Off-task
101	T	Ok. I thought you were… you were writing. (…)	Off-task

		(Addressing specific students) Do you think that is ok? What you are doing with me? What you're doing in your group. Ignoring me.	PT: Mental projection: Learner
102		xxx	
103		No, but in the process. You're not working together? Why are you ignoring me? Because it's not in the book? And your group? What happened?	PT: Mental projection: Learner
104	St.	Teacher, I have a question. Where are the topics for the xxx.	Off-task
105	T	Where are what?	Off-task
106	St.	The topics for the midterm.	Off-task
107	T	The topics of the midterm… No midterm. Assessment 1. Note-taking, noun phrases, vocabulary. What are you eating? Bread? St. Yes… T: Only bread. Bread. Water and bread? St: No. XXX bread. T: xxx, Hansel looks great today. The bread doesn't help. St: el pan de bono lo engorda a uno mucho.	Off-task Off-task Off-task Off-task
108		Si uno se lo come con alguna proteína no engorda, pero como lo comen a deshoras xxx pero si lo combinas, no pasa nada.	Off-task
109		I don't like bread.	Off-task
110		No, you don't like bread? Why?	Off-task
111		It has too many carbohydrates.	Off-task
112		In your house they don't give you any bread?	Off-task
113		Ahh.. Yes, in my family…	Off-task
114		Él no come sanduche.	Off-task
115		O sea, sí, pero sólo cuando… o sea, cómo les digo a ustedes. No me gusta el pan... xxx	Off-task
116		Pan con queso, con mantequilla Con Coca Cola Pan francés	Off-task
ACTIVITY FOUR			
118	T	Ok, please have a look at this! Look at this sample. This is a compare and contrast essay.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model

		So, when I say I want a compare and contrast essay, that's what I want. One, two, three paragraphs. To the point. No blah blah. Look at the introduction. Analyze it. Where is the thesis statement? Can you identify? What is the topic?	PT: Mental projection: Self: procedure ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model
119	S	The topic is weather.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
120	T	Introductory paragraph. Look at your introductory paragraph. How many lines do you have?	ASU:CCK: ing attention: product
121	Ss	xxx	
122	T	So, where is the thesis statement? Where does it begin or where does it end? Thesis statement is what the essay is going to be about. The idea that is going to be developed in each paragraph.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: product ASU: CCK: EK: Conceptualization
123	Ss	xxx	
124	T	Give me the topic sentence.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model
125	Ss	Begins in "By comparing" and ends in xxx.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
126	T	Do you agree? That's the thesis statement? This is what the author is going to do in the essay? He's going to contrast climate type of activities and location could decide whether to vacation on the beach or in the mountains.	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model
127	Ss	Yeah.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
128	S	Yes.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
129	T	And then, look at the second paragraph.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model
130	S	Begins with xxx	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
131	T	Begins with climate? Which is the first sentence, and then? Where is the type of activities, *Christian*?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
132	C	In…	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
133	T	Carlos, activities and then location. Where is location?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
134	C	The final paragraph	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
135	T	If you look at this paragraph, the paragraph is absolutely parallel to the xxx, the same order, the same type of information but for the mountains.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model

		What type of style is this? Is it point-by-point or block?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
136	C	Point by point.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
137	T	Point by point or block?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
138	Ss	Block	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
139	C	What's the difference?	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
140	T	One idea per paragraph. So, you're contrasting or comparing three different ideas, each paragraph should be devoted to that. For example, in a point by point we have a paragraph one paragraph for climate and another paragraph for types of activities and another paragraph for locations. So, is this point by point?	ASU: CCK: EK: Conceptualization SI: SupIn: Action supporter: facilitating ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
141	Ss	No	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
142	T	No. It is?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
143	Ss	Block, block!	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
144	T	In block, in one paragraph you compare and contrast, addressing the different features. Are you clear in your paragraph, what are the things that you are contrasting? Have you identified that in your intro? Or you feel like reading and checking ideas?	ASU: CCK: EK: Conceptualization ASU:CCK: Inquiring: product ASU:CCK: Inquiring: product ASU:CCK: Negotiating: task conditions
145	S	Teacher, block is not the one of the beach and mountains or the things? For example, the second paragraph is about the mountains and the third paragraph is about the beach.	ASU:AP: Verbalizing
146	T	And this one is about?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
147	Ss	The mountains	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
148	T	And this one is about?	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model
149	Ss	The beach.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
150	T	And the other…	ASU:CCK: Inquiring: Model

151	S	And in this the three aspects.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
152	S	But only one…	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
153	T	In the block you take one aspect and devote one paragraph only to the aspect, and other paragraph only to type of activities and another paragraph to locations.	ASU: CCK: EK: Conceptualization
154	S	For comparing the… this and other.	ASU: CCK: Responding: Model
155	T	Yes. And notice that . Short, nice, so this is the model for you to use. This is the kind… this is our target. This is the kind of essay that I would like you to try to do, ok? So, keep rolling. I am not going to comer mamey.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model ASU:CCK: ing attention: Model
157	F	Yo no he escrito es nada. Estoy aquí es escribiendo vacuencias.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Self: ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: SI: ReIn: S.Learner: Comment: In: RS: Evaluative (Affective?)
158	L	¿Sí?	
159	F	Joda estoy es improvisando. No he escrito nada bueno.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Self: ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: SI: ReIn: S.Learner: Comment: In: RS: Evaluative (Affective?)
160	L	¿Nada?	
161	F	Y tú estás haciendo algo como bueno.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product:
162	L	No, yo estoy haciendo cule vaina mala.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: :
163	F	Pero es que no he terminado.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: In
164	L	Yo no pude porque me tocó borrar todo lo que tenía y ese fue el que hice.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: In
165	F	Yo empecé aquí pero tu habías traído ya algo de la casa.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Self: ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: In
166	L	No, yo no hice nada.	ASU:CCK: Appraising: Product: : In

167	T	(*Addressing the class*) Does your partner have a thesis? Is it block style or point by point? Is he using the language? The compare and contrast language? The academical xxx? The points? What you have to do is identify. (*Speaking to F*) What are you doing? Why don't you follow the model? This is the information that you're going to use, but the model is clear, so try to follow the model.	ASU:CCK: ing attention: product ASU:CCK: ing attention: procedure SI: SuIn: Strategic: ing ASU:CCK: ing attention: procedure
169	F	The thesis is… is…I want to…	ASU:CCK: Responding: procedure
171	T	Review? But this is only the introduction, I need the whole thing.	SI: Action supporter: interrupting ASU: CCK: ing attention: task conditions: : :
172	F	I write that because I started like that in the book.	ASU: CCK: Arguing: product: :
173	T	This is an introduction.	ASU:CCK: Affirming: product: :
174	F	And I was writing the model	ASU: CCK: Arguing: product: :
175	T	Ok, you can write the introduction and see if it has a thesis. That's the only thing you can do.	SI: Action supporter: RS. Strategic
176	F	I think that is good because I see in the model and I take some structures	PT: Mental projection: Self: evaluation SI: Action supporter: Explaining own actions
177	T	I'm not saying anything. I'm just saying that you can only review the introduction now because the rest is not complete. (*The teacher turns to another student*).	PT: Verbal projection: Self PT: Verbal projection: Self: procedure ASU: CCK: Appraising: product: :

Appendix 2: Teacher interview transcript

1. **Una de las observaciones realizadas en su interacción con los estudiantes es el énfasis en el aspecto procedimental, dejando el aspecto conceptual a cargo de los estudiantes. ¿A qué se debía esto?**

2. Ellos tienen que escribirlo, y generalmente, de pronto sobre la presuposición de que no están trayendo a su escritura en inglés un conocimiento muy fuerte de esa escritura en español. Siento que en esa clase estaba yo tratando mucho de darles como el modelaje de qué es lo que tienen que escribir, cómo lo tienen que escribir, porque a pesar que ya lo habían leído y habían hecho ejercicios de familiarización creía yo que no entendían de forma muy clara de qué era que se trataba realmente la tarea de escritura, era como el objeto. Entonces, yo creo que sí. Yo hago mucho énfasis, no solo en esa clase sino que en general yo hago mucho énfasis en un procedimiento claro de qué vamos a hacer y cómo lo vamos a hacer. Eso le quita al estudiante el estrés, un estrés que se genera al no saber cómo es que son las cosas, ni qué se espera de él en términos de procedimiento.

3. **¿A qué atribuye la dificultad manifestada por los estudiantes en la comprensión de los conceptos relacionados con el tema del escrito?**
4. Ahí está asociado con otro tema que es el de la comprensión lectora, ¿verdad? Que es que, en ese tipo de trabajo que primero se les da una responsabilidad individual de dar cuenta de una lectura, el estudiante, por circunstancias de su vida o por opciones y decisiones que toma no toma ese trabajo con mucha seriedad, por un lado. Diría yo que le falta apropiarse y tomar esa lectura y trabajarla a mayor profundidad a nivel de vocabulario, tiene muchas fallas en léxico, entonces vienen con una visión de que simplemente con tener estrategias de lectura ellos van a poder tener una idea bastante clara del texto, y logran una idea muy general. Pero el trabajo de un texto donde yo a nivel de conceptos no tengo claridad se apunta muy directamente a unas competencias lexicales y a una comprensión lexical. Si no

reconozco las palabras y los conceptos asociados a esas palabras y hago el puente a mi idioma nativo… es que yo estoy leyendo y tengo una idea general pero al momento de yo hacer una construcción textual pues no puedo dar cuenta de eso. Creo que la dificultad tiene en parte que ver con eso, que como lectores de pronto yo asumo que ellos tienen ese proceso más refinado de apropiación de texto, de realmente hacer un trabajo juicioso y meticuloso de las palabras, qué significan las palabras, aunque se hizo en clase no hay una responsabilidad individual de apropiación de eso, y eso no lo puede hacer el profesor, lo tiene que hacer el estudiante.

5. **¿En dónde se fundamentan sus presupuestos respecto a la dificultad para redactar textos en las condiciones requeridas por la tarea?**
6. En la observación de ellos en esa clase, porque después de esa clase hubo el ejercicio de escritura que se hace más individualmente y es donde se nota más ese tipo de vacíos y donde realmente se da mas el scaffolding de cómo, con un producto muy concreto que el estudiante esta construyendo se detecta mas fácilmente, bueno aquí tenemos dificultades en establecer el topic sentence o el thesis statement de esto, es cómo se hace, volvemos al modelo de cómo se hace, ahora hazlo. Pero también, y volviendo un poco a lo que tú decías, se nota la dificultad al conceptualizar, conceptualizar cuál es mi thesis. No sé, de qué voy a hablar. No conocen desde la mecánica de establecer un thesis statement hasta las ideas que van a poder ellos trabajar ahí y decir, bueno, así es que lo voy a hacer. Y se nota, a pesar que hay un trabajo de pre-escritura, que ellos al trabajo de pre-escritura no le dan importancia y sienten que no es necesario. No todos, por supuesto, porque algunos sí lo hacen, realmente ese vaciado de qué es lo que yo quiero decir antes de empezar la escritura, sino que lo hacen de una manera, tal vez como lo hacen en su idioma nativo que empiezan a escribir porque asumen que ya tienen clara las ideas pero en el momento de la escritura cuando empiezan a hacer el escrito, es cuando ellos notan que tienen unos vacíos. Pienso que eso funciona igual, no. No necesariamente tiene que estar el proceso, aunque ayuda, pero si ya yo estoy en la escritura propiamente y noto que hay vacíos entonces puedo devolverme a los textos, que fue lo que ellos hicieron en su primer draft. Ahí si establecieron cuáles son las

dificultades que realmente tengo y después se devolvieron a llenar sobre esas dificultades, lo que es una visión un poco deficitaria, diría yo, porque ¿por qué no puede uno hacer de una vez un buen borrador? Y es menos trabajo después.

7. **¿Qué intención tuvo al momento de hacer la explicación de los aspectos formales del ensayo de contraste durante la fase de producción?**

8. Aquí era como… de igual manera creo que es muy procedimental, de que se ubicaran dentro de un texto, de un modelo creo que era en ese momento, un modelo de un texto que está en el mismo libro. Esa dificultad que yo identifico en ellos y es la falta de reconocimiento de lo que es un thesis statement y la falta de… al no reconocerlo son poco capaces de replicar esa misma fórmula en sus escritos. Entonces creo que ahí yo intentaba que, dentro del texto, ellos identificaran como a nivel lingüístico cómo se empezaba, dónde empieza, dónde termina, cómo se ubica dentro de un párrafo, para que ellos pudieran entonces hacer algo parecido. Creo que en español, no es tan necesario ponerlo de primero en el primer párrafo, ellos lo pueden colocar en cualquier lado. En inglés es como un patrón mas definido.

9. **¿Cuál era su propósito al delimitar las preguntas hacia un rango de respuesta más limitado?**

10. Creo que, precisamente es eso, irlos llevando… empezar con una pregunta amplia donde se ubican, miren el párrafo, miren la introducción, ¿dónde están? Miren los marcadores, y si ya lo identifqué.. yo estoy asumiendo que ellos están haciendo unas acciones conmigo, yo les voy preguntando ellos van haciendo mentalmente identificando y los voy guiando. Después de identificarlo, ahora ¿cual es el tema? O sea, como ir llevando dentro del párrafo hasta que identifquen esos marcadores.

11. **¿Qué aporte considera que tienen la interacción con el docente y con los pares en el proceso de construcción del conocimiento?**

12. Siento que este tipo de interacción (interacción entre pares) es la que mas pudiera generar ese movimiento a nivel conceptual del estudiante hacia una mayor claridad o confirmación de lo que ellos ya saben, o a moverse hacia nuevas comprensiones, sería este tipo de interacción que se dan en los grupos, que precisamente es la razón por la que creo firmemente en el trabajo en grupo. Pienso que el profesor tiene un rol mucho mas de ese tipo de guía porque un profesor con un número de estudiantes tal, 20 25, 30 los que sea, es muy difícil a nivel global de whole class interaction lograr este tipo de conversaciones y de interacción donde realmente se está construyendo una nueva comprensión, una confirmación, una extensión de una comprensión de un tema, de un concepto. Y además siento que los estudiantes, con el profesor, no logran ese nivel de interacción porque está el tema de losing face, si yo muestro que yo realmente tengo una pregunta, ¿cómo así que por qué tú preguntas? O sea, hay varios asuntos de ese tipo de interacción globales que realmente en un intercambio de pequeños grupos se logra.

13. **¿Considera usted que el estatus del docente dificulta el establecimiento de una interacción más flexible entre aprendices y docentes?**

14. Pero es que ni siquiera el profesor con el estudiante sino también el estudiante con el estudiante. Y es que si uno quiere posicionarse más al hacer preguntas o algún tipo de interacción donde se pueda hacer preguntas o se pueda ver que yo no tengo claridad, pierde también el estudiante con sus pares, entonces ahí creo que las bondades del trabajo en equipo surgen cada vez más.

15. **¿Por qué cree que los estudiantes no seguían el modelo a pesar de sus indicaciones?**

16. Yo siento que ellos traían, ya traen una idea de lo que es escribir desde su idioma nativo, entonces recuerdo mucho esa clase porque era como frustrante para mí ver que ellos trataban de vaciar dentro del escrito era la manera como ellos escribían un texto argumentativo de ensayo, más bien de opinión, en el texto de comparación y contraste, entonces yo encontraba unos largos discursos en las introducciones, y eso a nivel cultural es un choque, ¿verdad? Creo que… varias cosas: yo escribo mas en inglés que en español, entonces, por supuesto también uso mucho circumlocation y esas cosas, esas introducciones ignoraban el patrón que se les pedía que siguieran por seguir su propio patrón, lo que está bien, pero yo también tenía esa preocupación acerca de la escritura evaluativa que ellos tenían que hacer mas adelante y que sentía que si seguían usando este modelo propio, no les iba a ir bien, no iban, por ejemplo, a hacer su introducción clara con un thesis statement. Entonces yo sentía que me ignoraban, no solamente a mí sino lo que yo quería… el material que yo quería que ellos… y el material al que le había dedicado tanto tiempo en esa clase que esto es como, a nivel mecánico así es que se logra.

17. **¿Cómo explicaría el que los estudiantes no pusieron en práctica su explicación durante la redacción de su borrador?**
18. Es interesante, porque ese no era el trabajo final sino uno de práctica. Entonces yo siento que tenía angustia de ver que en la práctica ellos todavía no eran capaces de hacer… lo que indica varias cosas, probablemente que faltó más conceptualización, que faltó mas apropiación de ellos del modelo antes de empezar la escritura. En ese sentido, tengo una disonancia ahí. Pareciera entonces, cuando uno ya está en esto, pareciera que ya no hay remedio. Si tú ya entras a un modo de producción, en ese momento hay poco que hacer, entonces eso va un poco en contra de la idea que tiene uno del pre, del during y del after, a menos que durante el after que es donde se hace la revisión y se hacen comentarios, realmente eso se integre. Eso tiene que tener implicaciones graves (*laughing*) para la idea tan común de que si de verdad se hace un proceso y que una vez pasa esto del drafting sí puede integrarse.

19. ¿Cómo interpreta el hecho de que los estudiantes se brindaran apoyo mutuo a pesar de que la entrega del producto era individual?

20. Este era mi objetivo, y creo que entonces sí se logra, porque yo empiezo a trabajar con team-based learning con el presupuesto de que, primero es poco lo que el profesor puede realmente hacer , pero al construir grupos y darles tareas , problemas que resolver, ellos van desarrollando, primero, esa responsabilidad individual de que tienen que venir al grupo preparados, algunos lo logran más que otros . Lo otro es el desarrollo de esa cohesión de grupo, ese apoyo entre los compañeros . Eso grupos que yo hice los hice en el segundo día de clase con un listado donde yo pregunté los que habían estado fuera, o sea traté de combinar en un grupo unos que eran fuertes en la lengua, que habían tenido experiencias muy buenas por fuera… combinar esos estudiantes recién llegados porque eran de pronto de semestres inferiores, estudiantes que ya estuviesen en práctica, que han tenido la experiencia por fuera de la universidad , estudiantes que eran dedicados y meticulosos aunque no fueran tan buenos en inglés, entonces en cada grupo, esos que tu veías formados, estaban mezclados, y cada cosa que hacíamos la hacían en grupo. Eso para darles cohesión. Yo en este grupo no pude lograr, porque es una experiencia nueva todavía, no pude lograr cambiar la evaluación en el sentido de que haya una responsabilidad individual y una responsabilidad grupal y esos niveles de compromiso en el trabajo grupal se pudieran realmente reflejar en unas ganancias más observables para todos, pero viendo esto se confirma mi presentimiento de que si se logran estos niveles de apoyo, de empatía, de colaboración entre los compañeros, y que se ayudan.

21. Al momento de requerir apoyo cognitivo en la comprensión de un concepto, uno de las observaciones realizadas es que usted redirigía el apoyo hacia el aspecto estratégico. ¿Era esta una acción deliberada?

22. Yo creo que eso tiene que ver mucho con una creencia que yo tengo, que es que, al ir haciendo, yo entiendo, porque lo otro es muy verbal. Yo te puedo decir, bueno, para hacer una similitud tú tienes que buscar las características que tiene este, el otro, ta ta ta… pero eso realmente es verbal y yo siento que realmente se aprende es haciendo. El yo empezar a hacer la similitud o hacer la comparación, yo detecto dónde tengo la dificultad y donde puedo entonces aclararla. Yo siento que eso es deliberado mío, yo siento que eso es una de las partes que lo que yo hago. Tal vez debería dar mas apoyo conceptual y cognitivo y aclarar, pero yo tengo esa creencia muy arraigada, que siento que si yo como individuo que estoy tratando de aprender no me pongo en el trabajo de hacer realmente , en este caso de hacer la comparación y detectar qué es lo que me falta y por qué no logro hacerlo, lo que diga el profesor realmente no me va a ayudar mucho porque es una verbalización que es, es accionar y es hacerlo.

23. ¿Influye su estilo de aprendizaje en la forma cómo usted abordó las actividades observadas?

24. Por supuesto, siempre influye. Es inevitable que un profesor no refleje en la manera que enseña su propia manera de aprender y de entender, yo creo que mi visión de qué se aprende y de la manera que se aprende, que se aprende al hacer, que el que aprende es el que hace y no el que dice. Creo que influye mucho esa idea y esa manera de yo relacionarme con mis estudiantes, pero puede ser percibido así. Es interesante, porque además hay que darle al estudiante lo que requiera y si lo que necesita es apoyo cognitivo, sería bueno dárselo.

Appendix 3: Focal group

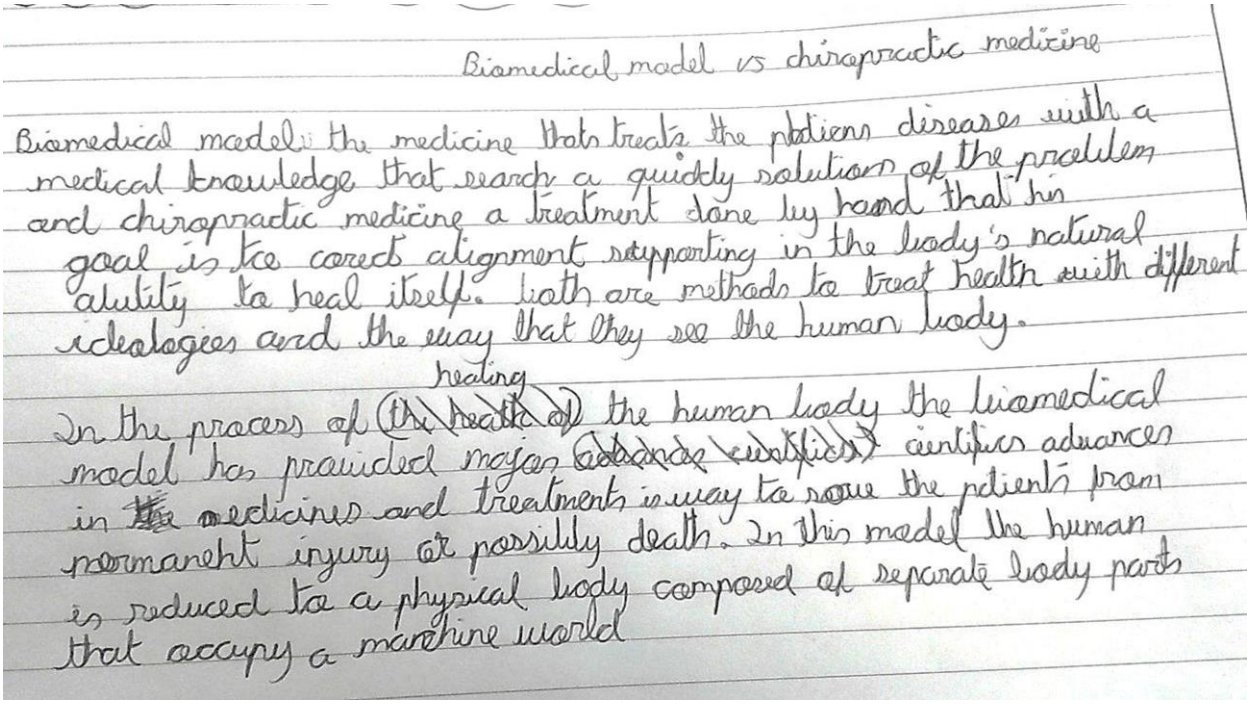
1. *C:* No, que la metodología de la profesora eh… no es como el profesor que se involucra mas que todo con el alumno sino es que da como unas instrucciones básicas y deja al alumno que se desenvuelva en el grupo. No es como el profesor, digamos, que tiene otro tipo de metodología que es llegar desde el inicio hasta el fin con el alumno así sea que sea en grupo o no, pero las personas se unen después en grupo como a discutir pero ya tienen idea, ya el profesor los guió, ya les dio como unos pasos básicos para que ellos mismos se desenvuelvan. Eso podía tener una contraparte negativa que es que si no te queda claro un tema y ninguno le quedó claro, y eso algo que nos pasó bastante a mí y a mi grupo y sé que a muchos nos pasó, era que uno se quedaba como a la de Dios, a lo que se dé. Entonces digamos no comparto esa metodología de que me den una inducción básica y después arrancas solo.
2. *C:* No, digamos, que te iban a explicar un tema y la profesora lo explica básicamente, o sea te da como la introducción del tema: esto se hace así, así y así, pero quedan dudas, ¿ya? Y si el profesor enseguida te coloca una actividad y dice desenvuélvanse con su grupo, por mas que tú le preguntes puede que ella no se coloque como al cien por ciento a que tu te desenvuelvas, y eso fue lo que le pasó en el primer parcial a muchos, que ella explicó un tema básicamente y después nos dijo "desenvuélvanse" y ahí quedó. Cuando vino el parcial, en el tema de los *nouns*, que literalmente eso sí, ella lo explicó un día, la gente más o menos le entendió; nadie le cogió el xxx, y después ustedes en grupo háganle y practiquen, si teníamos duda, no sé no…
3. *F:* Lo que pasa es que cuando uno está en un grupo de seis, cinco personas…
4. *C:* claro
5. *F:* Los compañeros no van a ser nunca como un profesor. Entonces, ellos como que te tratan de explicar lo que ellos entendieron y lo que uno termina haciendo es una persona que no entienda casi es que se enreda un poco más.

6. *C:* Se enreda uno porque no la tiene clara, y eso fue lo que pasó en parcial, que en el parcial vino y puso *nouns* y en mi grupo todos nos quedamos como… ¿ajá y qué?
7. *F:* Fue un parcial que bastante…
8. *C:* Bastante gente lo perdió, y fue por eso. Porque todo el mundo…yo me quedé, por ejemplo algunas cosas yo me las sabía, pero esto que el profesor pone un tema y ustedes desenvuélvanse… no profundizaba, no te lleva de un punto hacia otro.
9. *F:* Entonces eso era lo que generaba que tú veías a la profesora por todo el salón dando vueltas, toda la hora dando vueltas porque todos venían, la llamaban aquí, la llamaban acá, la llamaban allá. Obviamente, uno por mas que esté en grupo siempre está con muchas dudas, entonces la profesora tú la llamabas y tenías que esperar que ella llegara, porque ese se notaba que la gente no entendía tan a fondo con eso tan básico que ella explicaba. Yo entiendo que la idea era que uno se desenvolviera más con los compañeros pero, ¿qué pasa? Uno está con un compañero y normalmente para uno es más fácil hablar en español. Yo entiendo que la idea de los grupos es para hablar en inglés y estar en el grupo, pero ajá, ese es también problema de uno estudiante que como está la facilidad y la manera más rápida de que te expliquen una cosa en español, ya después tú la vas traduciendo. Entonces ese el problema de lo que sucede, bueno con esta metodología. Ya con este profesor es más la metodología vieja, que es la del acompañamiento… viste que ya no ha seguido los grupos como tal. De vez en cuando… ahora en la actividad que estábamos haciendo que el que no tiene libro se pone con un compañero, algo así.
10. *C:* Pero él es diferente a otro tipo de profesores. Hay profesores que usan esa metodología clásica pero son más reservados, más serios, full X, y eso no le entra al alumno. Este profesor con esa chispa, ese, ¿cómo se llama? Esa buena vibra, carismático, involucra al alumno y trabaja como si fuese un joven más con nosotros hablando y eso, y hace que el alumno se esté riendo, se esté involucrando, y pues, no sé… uno le presta como más atención.
11. *F:* Él tiene algunas veces que hace pequeños juegos con el estudiante, entonces hace que uno esté mas atento a la clase, entonces no es la típica clase esa teórica… un acompañamiento más.. pero más chévere… el viene y mama gallo con uno y después trabajamos, y entonces ya uno le va prestando atención.

12. *C:* Como lo que estábamos haciendo ahora. Estábamos haciendo un vocabulario de alimentación, no sé, y comenzamos a hablar de comidas, y comenzó a preguntarnos qué era lo que comíamos nosotros, por qué no nos gustaba eso, o sea como involucrar al alumno en forma de, como si estuviésemos hablando él y yo ahora mismo de nosotros, así como si no estuviésemos en la clase, pero en inglés, y a la vez vamos practicando vocabulario. ¿Qué comes tú? Lenteja. Bueno, lenteja se dice tal y lo anota en el tablero. Y sigue preguntado, y ustedes que comen, y no… que por qué no te gusta, y que eso es rico y tal, o sea, ni siquiera te hablan y comienzas a preguntar, es como una mesa redonda entre todos ahí.
13. *Researcher:* Ok, o sea, en conclusión para ustedes el trabajo en grupo per se no da las suficientes herramientas para manejar las competencias y los conceptos.
14. *C:* Es que mira, los trabajos en grupo son buenos, pero no para que tú te desenvuelvas el cien por ciento de las clases tú siempre en grupo, sino digamos eh… después que hayan dado una un tema, algo así, vamos a hacer una actividad en grupo para reforzar dicho tema, mas no para.
15. *F:* No para desarrollar el tema, en el sentido de pero no para empezar a aprender el tema, porque es que, por ejemplo, muchos temas que uno estaba comenzando a aprender y obviamente en grupo uno lo que va a hacer es que se embolata más, y uno está sentado en círculo en grupo pero cada uno comienza a hacer lo que…¿si me entiendes? Por eso es que había veces que estábamos sentados y nadie hablaba. Todo el mundo preguntaba a la profesora, y ella decía que ella, que para eso está el grupo, pero el problema es que en el grupo, ajá, lo que ya hemos mencionado.
16. *C:* En el grupo ninguno ha estudiado inglés toda su vida. No tiene todas las…
17. *F:* habilidades
18. *C:* las formaciones del inglés, si uno no lo maneja…
19. *Researcher:* Podemos decir que ustedes, de cierta forma, no confían en lo que le diga un compañero.
20. *C:* No, pues sí se confía. En un compañero X yo confío, es más, cuando vino la parte de *Live*, de ese tema, ahí sí la teníamos clara nosotros bueno, porque ese es un tema que se maneja y ahí si hubo apoyo mutuo, yo le explicaba a las compañeras, las compañeras me explicaban a mí, todo eso. Eh… y yo confío.

21. *L:* La cuestión es que, se confía cuando hay el conocimiento. Cuando ya el otro también está dudando de eso, entonces ya uno sabe que el otro compañero tampoco sabe. Entonces estamos igual, y entonces ¿cómo nos ayudamos aquí?
22. *C:* Te vas por el que más o menos ahí esté seguro, pero si en el parcial tu sales equivocado, ¿qué pasa?
23. *F:* Es cierto…
24. *C:* Eso era lo que pasó, era puro tres.

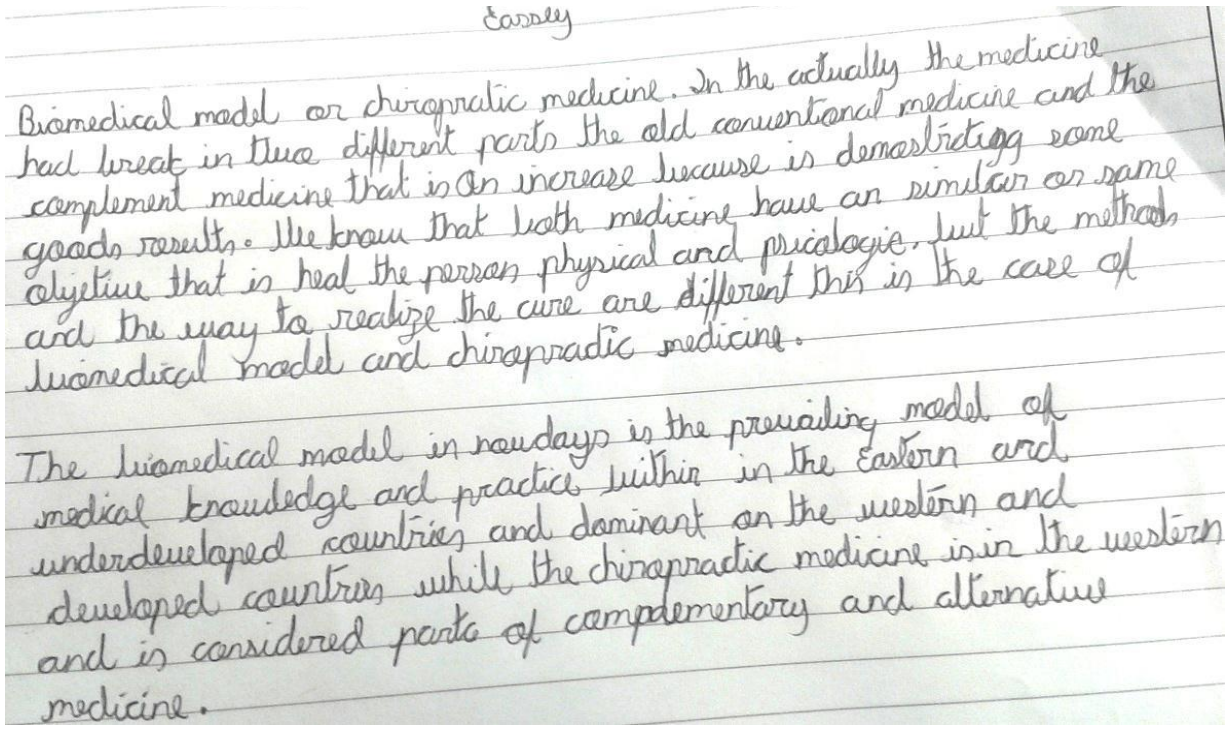
Appendix 4: Students writing samples



Biomedical model vs chiropractic medicine

Biomedicd model: the medicine that treats the patiens diseases with a medical knowledge that search a quiddy solution of the problem and chiropractic medicine a treatment done by hand that his goal is the corect alignment supporting in the body's natural ability to heal itself. both are methods to treat health with different ideologies and the way that they see the human body.

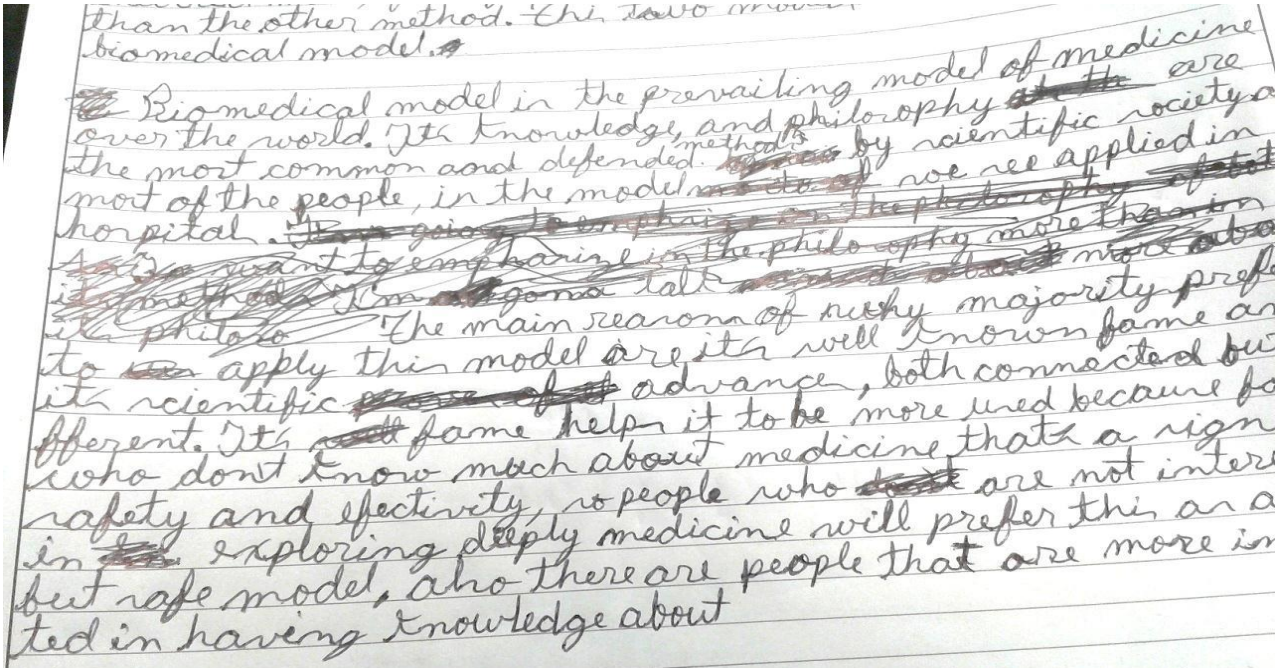
In the process of ~~the health of~~ healing the human body the biomedical model has provided major ~~advances~~ cientifics advances in ~~the~~ medicines and treatments is way to save the patients from permanent injury or possibly death. In this model the human is reduced to a physical body composed of separate body parts that occupy a machine world



Eassey

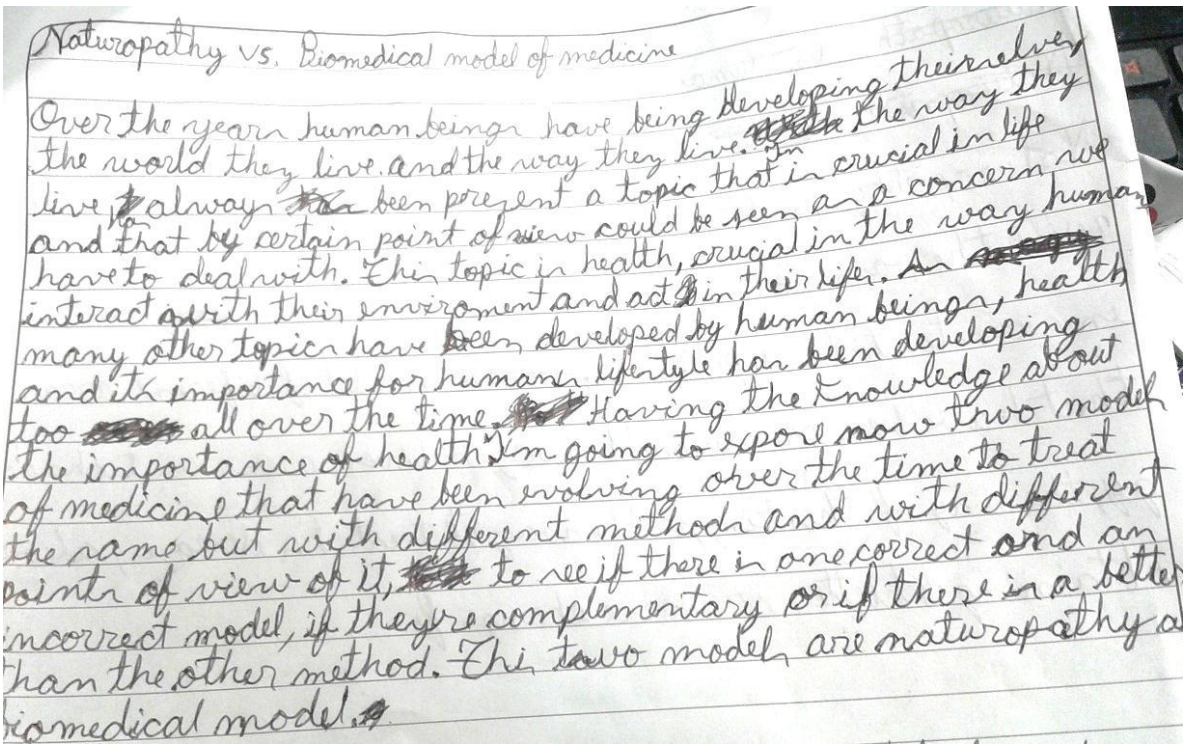
Biomedical model or chiropratic medicine. In the actually the medicine had treat in two different parts the old conventional medicine and the complement medicine that is on increase because is demostrating some goods results. We know that both medicine have an similar or same objetive that is heal the person physical and psicologic, but the methods and the way to realize the cure are different this is the case of biomedical model and chiropradic medicine.

The biomedical model in nowdays is the prevailing model of medical knowledge and practice within in the Eastern and underdeveloped countries and dominant on the western and developed countries while the chiropractic medicine is in the western and is considered parte of complementary and alternative medicine.



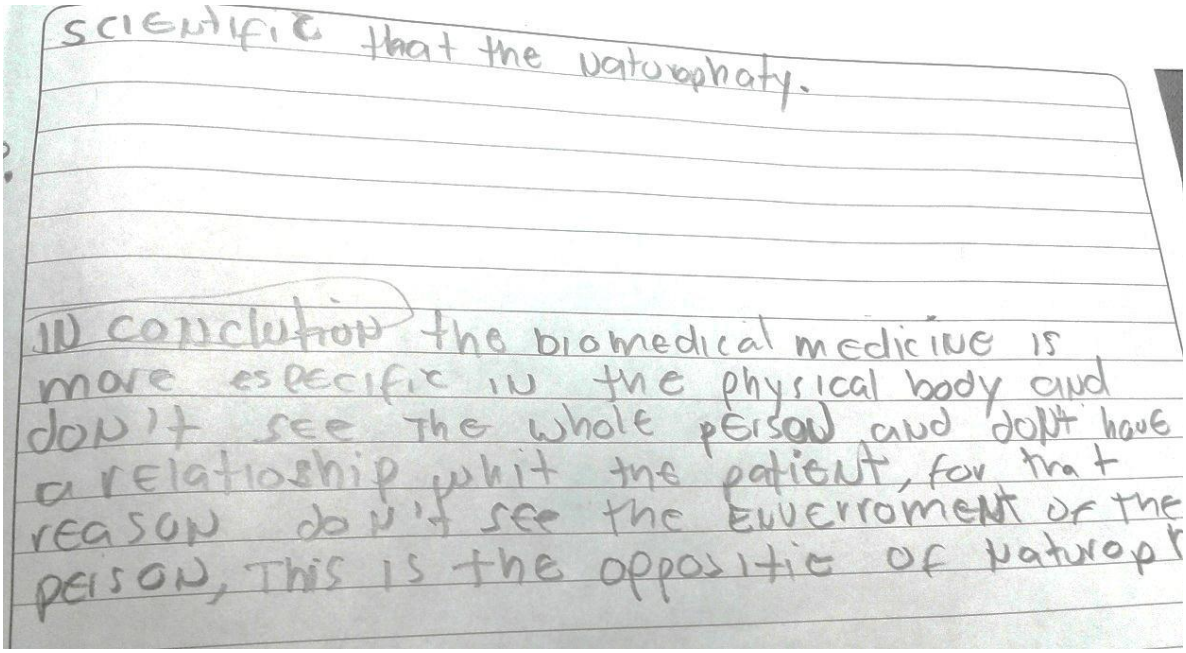
than the other method. This two models
biomedical model.

Biomedical model is the prevailing model of medicine over the world. Its knowledge and philosophy are the most common and defended by scientific society and most of the people, in the model we see applied in hospital. I'm going to emphasize in the philosophy more than in its method. I'm gonna talk about why majority prefer to apply this model are its well known fame and its scientific advance, both connected but different. Its fame help it to be more used because for who don't know much about medicine that a sign of safety and efectivity, so people who are not interested in exploring deeply medicine will prefer this or a but safe model, also there are people that are more interested in having knowledge about



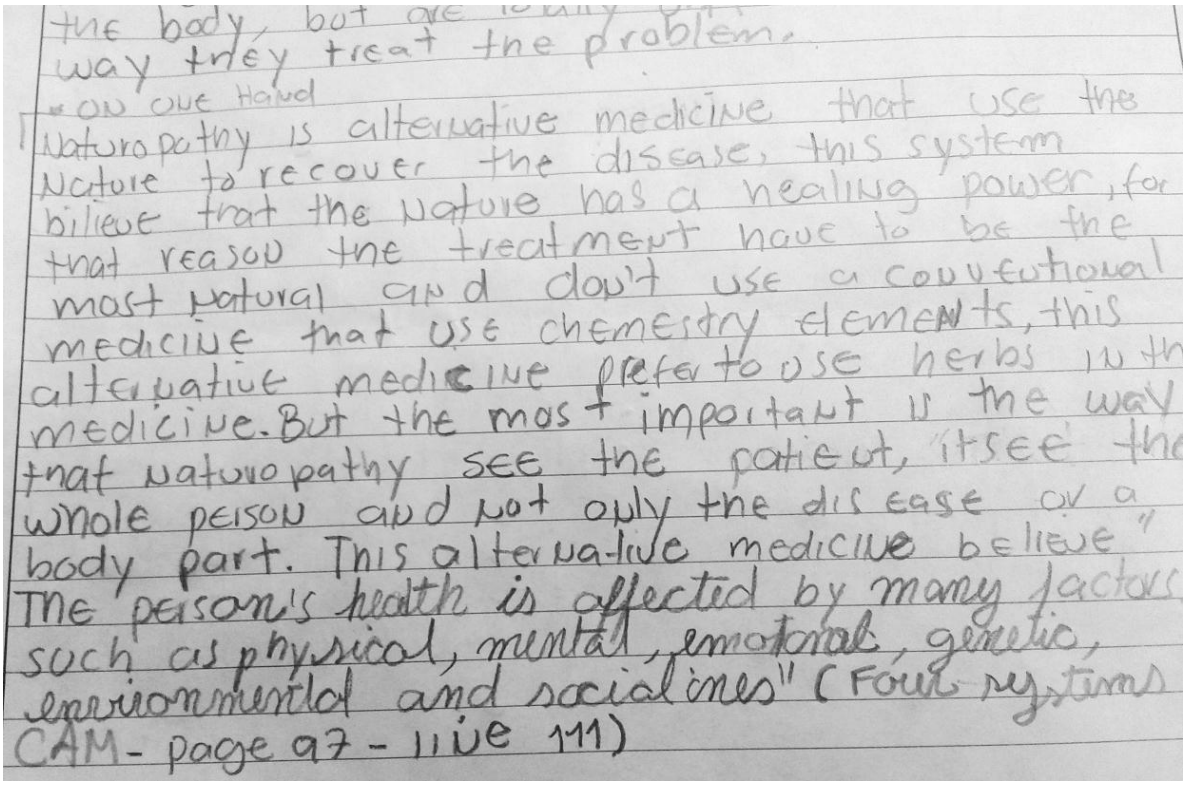
Naturopathy vs. Biomedical model of medicine

Over the years human beings have being developing themselves the world they live and the way they live. The way they live always been present a topic that is crucial in life and that by certain point of view could be seen as a concern we have to deal with. This topic is health, crucial in the way humans interact with their environment and act in their life. An many other topics have been developed by human beings, health and its importance for humans lifestyle has been developing too all over the time. Having the knowledge about the importance of health I'm going to expose now two models of medicine that have been evolving over the time to treat the same but with different methods and with different point of view of it, to see if there is one correct and an incorrect model, if they're complementary or if there is a better than the other method. This two models are naturopathy and biomedical model.



scientific that the naturopathy.

In conclution the biomedical medicine is more especific in the physical body and don't see the whole person and dont have a relationship whit the patient, for that reason don't see the enverroment of the peison, This is the opposite of naturop



the body, but are
way they treat the problem.
On one Hand
Naturopathy is alternative medicine that use the Nature to recover the disease, this system bilieve that the Nature has a healing power, for that reason the treatment have to be the most natural and don't use a convetional medicine that use chemestry elements, this alternative medicine prefer to use herbs in th medicine. But the most important is the way that naturopathy see the patient, itsee the whole peison and not only the disease or a body part. This alternative medicine believe "The person's health is affected by many factors such as physical, mental, emotional, genetic, environmental and social ines" (Four systems CAM - page 97 - live 111)

Appendix 5: Textbook material

3 You have a cold.

4 You have stomach trouble.

5 You feel tired all the time.

6 You have allergies.

7 You break a bone.

8 You feel anxious or stressed.

D. Discuss what happens when you are treated for these kinds of health problems. Do you think the treatment is effective; does it make you feel better?

E. There are many possible word forms relating to doctors and the medicine they practise. Fill in the chart below to learn some of these word forms. The first one is given as an example.

KIND OF DOCTOR	KIND OF MEDICINE PRACTISED
1 dentist	dentistry
2 optometrist	
3 surgeon	
4 chiropractor	
5 physical therapist	
6 homeopath	
7 herbalist	
8 acupuncturist	
9 massage therapist	
10 quack	

READING 2

Complementary and Alternative Medicine

A. Read the descriptions of four systems of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM). After reading about each system of CAM, write short notes in the chart following the description. These notes will help you see the similarities and differences between the different forms of CAM. When you have finished, compare your notes with a classmate's to confirm your comprehension.

Four Systems of CAM

1. Traditional Chinese Medicine

Traditional Chinese medicine (TCM) originated in ancient China and has evolved over thousands of years. TCM practitioners use herbs, acupuncture and other methods to

treat a wide range of conditions. In the Western world, TCM is considered part of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM).

Background: Traditional Chinese medicine, which encompasses many different practices, is rooted in the ancient philosophy of Taoism and dates back more than 5,000 years. Today, TCM is practised side by side with Western medicine in many of China's hospitals and clinics: ... TCM is widely used in the Western world.

Underlying Concepts: Underlying the practice of TCM is a unique view of the world and the human body that is different from Western medicine concepts. This view is based on the ancient Chinese perception of humans as microcosms of the larger, surrounding universe—interconnected with nature and subject to its forces. The human body is regarded as an organic entity in which the various organs, tissues and other parts have distinct functions but are all interdependent. In this view, health and disease relate to balance of the functions.

The theoretical framework of TCM has a number of key components:

- Yin/yang theory—the concept of two opposing, yet complementary, forces that shape the world and all life—is central to TCM.
- In the TCM view, a vital energy or life force called *qi* circulates in the body through a system of pathways called *meridians*. Health is an ongoing process of maintaining balance and harmony in the circulation of qi.
- The TCM approach uses eight principles to analyze symptoms and categorize conditions: cold/heat, interior/exterior, excess/deficiency and yin/yang (the chief principles). TCM also uses the theory of five elements—fire, earth, metal, water and wood—to explain how the body works; these elements correspond to particular organs and tissues in the body.

...

Treatment: TCM emphasizes individualized treatment. Practitioners traditionally used four methods to evaluate a patient's condition: observing (especially the tongue), hearing/smelling, asking/interviewing and touching/palpating (especially the pulse).

TCM practitioners use a variety of therapies in an effort to promote health and treat disease. The most commonly used are Chinese herbal medicine and acupuncture.

- Chinese herbal medicine: The Chinese *Material Medica* (a pharmacological reference book used by TCM practitioners) contains hundreds of medicinal substances—primarily plants, but also some minerals and animal products—classified by their perceived action in the body. Different parts of plants such as the leaves, roots, stems, flowers and seeds are used. Usually, herbs are combined in formulas and given as teas, capsules, tinctures or powders.

• Acupuncture: By stimulating specific points on the body, most often by inserting thin metal needles through the skin, practitioners seek to remove blockages in the flow of qi.

Other TCM therapies include moxibustion (burning moxa—a cone or stick of dried herb, usually mugwort—on or near the skin, sometimes in conjunction with acupuncture); cupping (applying a heated cup to the skin to create a slight suction); Chinese massage; mind-body therapies such as qigong and tai chi; and dietary therapy.

TRADITIONAL CHINESE MEDICINE	NOTES
PHILOSOPHY: What is the main idea, approach or theory?	
METHOD: What do the practitioners actually do?	
YOUR THOUGHTS: Do you think this system is effective? Explain your answer.	

2. Homeopathy

Homeopathy, also known as homeopathic medicine, is a whole medical system that was developed in Germany more than 200 years ago and has been practised in the Western world since the early nineteenth century. Homeopathy is used for wellness and prevention and to treat many diseases and conditions.

Overview: The term homeopathy comes from the Greek words *homeo*, meaning "similar," and *pathos*, meaning "suffering or disease." Homeopathy seeks to stimulate the body's ability to heal itself by giving very small doses of highly diluted substances. This therapeutic method was developed by German physician Samuel Christian Hahnemann at the end of the eighteenth century. Hahnemann articulated two main principles.

• The principle of similar (or "like cures like") states that a disease can be cured by a substance that produces similar symptoms in healthy people. This idea, which can be traced back to Hippocrates, was further developed by Hahnemann after he repeatedly ingested cinchona bark, a popular treatment for malaria, and found that he developed the symptoms of the disease. Hahnemann theorized that if a substance could cause disease symptoms in a healthy person, small amounts could cure a sick person who had similar symptoms.

• The principle of dilutions (or "law of minimum dose") states that the lower the dose of the medication, the greater its effectiveness. In homeopathy, substances are diluted in a stepwise fashion and shaken vigorously between each dilution. This process, referred to as "potentization," is believed to transmit some form of information or energy from the original substance to the final diluted remedy. Most homeopathic remedies are so dilute that no molecules of the healing substance remain; however, in homeopathy, it is believed that the substance has left its imprint or "essence," which stimulates the body to heal itself (this theory is called the "memory of water").

Homeopaths treat people based on genetic and personal health history, body type and current physical, emotional and mental symptoms. Patient visits tend to be lengthy. Treatments are "individualized" or tailored to each person—it is not uncommon for different people with the same condition to receive different treatments.

MODEL 6

How to Write a Compare and Contrast Essay

Compare and contrast essays are written to show the similarities and differences between two items. When you compare items, you show the similarities; when you contrast items, you show the differences. The following guidelines will help you write effective compare and contrast essays.

- Decide what points of comparison or contrast you wish to explain to your reader.
- Decide which pattern of organization fits your information best. There are two standard ways to organize a compare and contrast essay: block style organization and point-by-point style organization. Generally, block style organization is best for less technical information while point-by-point style organization is best for more technical information. Both styles of organization are demonstrated here.
- Like other kinds of essays, a compare and contrast essay has three general sections: an introduction, a body and a conclusion. Unlike a report, you may not use these section titles as headings in the essay.
- The introduction announces the topic of the essay. Although there are many good ways to start an essay, the introduction usually begins with a general statement about why the topic is important.
- The introduction finishes with a *thesis statement*. A thesis statement is a sentence that includes the topic of the essay and the opinion that the essay will present. It may or may not include the main points of comparison or contrast.
- The body of the essay will contain a number of paragraphs. For a short compare and contrast essay, usually each paragraph explains one point of comparison or contrast.
- Each body paragraph should start with a topic sentence that clearly indicates the topic of the paragraph. You can do this by repeating key words (or synonyms of the key words) from the thesis.
- Each body paragraph should finish with a sentence that makes the point of the paragraph clear.
- The conclusion summarizes the points of comparison and/or contrast. It often finishes with a sentence that restates (but not repeats) the thesis.

Example Compare and Contrast Essay

Compare and contrast two different technologies that could be used to solve water shortages.

Block Style Essay

WRITER'S PLAN FOR A BLOCK STYLE COMPARE AND CONTRAST ESSAY

- compare and contrast desalination with atmospheric water vapour processing
  - both are ways of producing pure drinking water
  - some differences in source, waste products and final product

DESALINATION	ATMOSPHERIC WATER VAPOUR PROCESSING
• explain the process; give an example - source: ocean water - waste products: salty brine - final product: salty (transport inland)	• explain the process; give an example - source: water vapour in the air - waste products: none - final product: very pure

- desalination and water vapour processing are useful because
  - sources are accessible
  - few waste products
  - final product = drinking water

Homeopathic remedies are derived from natural substances that come from plants, minerals or animals. Common remedies include red onion, arnica (mountain herb) and stinging nettle plant.

HOMEOPATHY	NOTES
PHILOSOPHY: What is the main idea, approach or theory?	
METHOD: What do the practitioners actually do?	
YOUR THOUGHTS: Do you think this system is effective? Explain your answer.	

3. Naturopathy

Naturopathy, also called naturopathic medicine, is a whole medical system—one of the systems of healing and beliefs that have evolved over time in different cultures and parts of the world. Naturopathy is rooted in health care approaches that were popular in Europe, and includes therapies (both ancient and modern) from many traditions. In naturopathy, the emphasis is on supporting health rather than combatting disease.

A Brief Description of Naturopathy: Naturopathy is a whole medical system that has its roots in Germany. It was developed further in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries in the Western world, where today it is part of complementary and alternative medicine (CAM). The word naturopathy comes from Greek and Latin and literally translates as "nature disease."

A central belief in naturopathy is that nature has a healing power (a principle called *vis medicatrix naturae*). Another belief is that living organisms (including the human body) have the power to maintain (or return to) a state of balance and health and to heal themselves. Practitioners of naturopathy prefer to use treatment approaches that they consider to be the most natural and least invasive, instead of using drugs and more invasive procedures.

Key Principles: The practice of naturopathy is based on six key principles:

1. Promote the healing power of nature.
2. First, do no harm. Naturopathic practitioners choose therapies with the intent to keep harmful side effects to a minimum and not suppress symptoms.
3. Treat the whole person. Practitioners believe a person's health is affected by many factors, such as physical, mental, emotional, genetic, environmental and social ones. Practitioners consider all these factors when choosing therapies and tailor treatment to each patient.
4. Treat the cause. Practitioners seek to identify and treat the causes of a disease or condition, rather than its symptoms. They believe that symptoms are signs that the body is trying to fight disease, adapt to it or recover from it.

Desalination and Atmospheric Water Vapour Processing

Desalination, or the process of removing salt from ocean water, and atmospheric water vapour processing, the process of turning water vapour into water, are both ways of producing drinking water for human consumption. Although desalination and atmospheric water vapour processing are distinct because they extract water from unique sources and produce different waste and final products, both are useful to increase the amount of water available for human use.

Producing drinking water from salty ocean water is the process of desalination. This process is used in the Middle East, where Saudi Arabia operates the largest desalination plant in the world. The source of water for desalination plants is ocean water. As ocean water is 97 percent of the world's water, there is a large supply of water that could be processed with desalination technology. The process does result in some unwanted waste products. Desalination plants produce salty brine, as well as some chemical wastes that must be properly disposed of. If the waste products are simply returned to the environment, they will pollute rivers and groundwater, but they can be properly managed so the environment is not damaged. Finally, the desalination process works by removing the salt from ocean water; however, it is impossible to remove all the salt. Therefore, the final product of desalination is drinking water with a salty taste.

Atmospheric water vapour processing pulls water vapour from the air, cools it and condenses it into drinking water. After an earthquake hit Taiwan in 1999, water vapour processors produced enough water to supply the military soldiers who were helping the relief efforts. The main source of water for this kind of treatment is humid air, which is free in large quantities. As for waste products, it is true that in order to cool the water vapour, a refrigerant is used. However refrigerants, also found in refrigerators and dehumidifiers, can be used for long periods of time before they become waste. The final product of atmospheric water vapour processing is appealing, too. It is one of the cleanest forms of water. Pollutants in the air that adhere to rain drops do not stick to water vapour; consequently, the final product of this process is very pure.

Both desalination and water vapour processing technology are useful methods for producing clean drinking water in countries where there is a lack of natural water supply. The sources of water for these processes are easily available, their waste products can be properly managed so they don't harm the environment, and the end products are clean drinking water for human consumption.

Jacobs, D. (2002, December 28). Water, water everywhere. *Ottawa Citizen*, p. A3.

Point-By-Point Style Essay

WRITER'S PLAN FOR A POINT-BY-POINT STYLE COMPARE AND CONTRAST ESSAY	
• compare and contrast desalination with atmospheric water vapour processing - both ways of producing pure drinking water - some differences in source, waste products and final product	
SOURCE OF WATER	• desalination: ocean water • water vapour processing: air

Appendix 6: Initial questionnaire

UNIVERSIDAD DEL NORTE
MAESTRÍA EN LA ENSEÑANZA DEL INGLÉS
PERFIL DEL PARTICIPANTE

Apreciado estudiante: *El presente cuestionario tiene por objetivo explorar algunos aspectos de tu aprendizaje para llegar a una mayor comprensión de la interacción durante el trabajo en grupo. Por favor, por cada ítem, selecciona la respuesta que más se ajuste a tu apreciación.*

A. INFORMACIÓN DEMOGRÁFICA

Nombre:				**Edad:**	
Sexo:		**Estrato socioeconómico:**		**Programa:**	

B. EXPERIENCIA DE APRENDIZAJE

1. La mayoría de mi aprendizaje del inglés ha tenido lugar:
   a. en la educación básica
   b. en la educación universitaria
   c. viviendo en un país de habla inglesa
   d. en un curso de inglés
   e. de forma autodidacta

2. Actualmente considero mi nivel de inglés:
   a. excelente
   b. bueno
   c. regular
   d. deficiente

3. Lo que más se me facilita en inglés es:
   a. sostener conversaciones
   b. comprender lo que escucho
   c. redactar distintos tipos de texto
   d. comprender lo que leo

4. Lo que más énfasis ha tenido en mi aprendizaje del inglés es:
   a. las reglas gramaticales
   b. el vocabulario
   c. la comunicación oral
   d. la comunicación escrita

5. Comunicarme en inglés en mi vida diaria es:
   a. muy importante
   b. importante
   c. poco importante
   d. no tiene importancia

6. Comunicarme en inglés en mi futura vida profesional es:
   a. muy importante
   b. importante
   c. poco importante
   d. no tiene importancia

   ¿Por qué?

   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____
   _____

7. La mayoría de actividades de aprendizaje del inglés en las que participé el semestre pasado fueron:
   a. individuales
   b. en parejas
   c. en grupos de 3 o 4
   d. en grupos de más de 4

C. ACTITUDES HACIA EL TRABAJO GRUPAL

1. Generalmente prefiero trabajar:
   a. solo
   b. en parejas
   c. en grupos de 3 o 4
   d. en grupos de 5 o más integrantes

   ¿Por qué?

   _____

_____
_____
_____
_____
_____

2. Cuando trabajo en grupo, me siento a gusto:
   a. siempre
   b. casi siempre
   c. a veces
   d. nunca

3. El trabajo en grupo es:
   a. más productivo que el trabajo individual
   b. tan productivo como el trabajo individual
   c. menos productivo que el trabajo individual

4. Cuando trabajo en grupo, mis ideas son aceptadas:
   a. siempre
   b. casi siempre
   c. a veces
   d. nunca

5. El aprendizaje en grupos es mejor que el aprendizaje individual:
   a. totalmente de acuerdo
   b. de acuerdo
   c. en desacuerdo
   d. en total desacuerdo

6. Mi aporte al trabajo grupal es muy valioso:
   a. siempre
   b. casi siempre
   c. a veces
   d. nunca

D. ESTILO DE TRABAJO GRUPAL

1. Al momento de formar un grupo:
   a. decido con qué compañeros trabajar y los llamo por su nombre.
   b. espero a que otros me llamen para trabajar conmigo
   c. espero a que se formen los grupos y me uno a uno de ellos
   d. espero a que el profesor me asigne un compañero

2. Al momento de decidir con quién trabajar, lo que más tengo en cuenta es:
   a. proximidad física
   b. capacidad intelectual
   c. afinidad de personalidades
   d. otro (¿Cuál? _____)

3. Durante el trabajo grupal, me caracterizo principalmente por:
   a. dar instrucciones a mis compañeros
   b. seguir las instrucciones de otro compañero
   c. promover acuerdos entre mis compañeros
   d. mantener el ánimo y bienestar del grupo
   e. abstenerme de participar

4. Durante el trabajo grupal, prefiero:
   a. que dividamos las tareas entre los participantes y luego armemos el trabajo.
   b. que trabajemos juntos en cada tarea hasta la conclusión del trabajo

5. Si un integrante del grupo está distraído, yo generalmente:
   a. trato de persuadirlo para que se enfoque en el trabajo
   b. lo ignoro y hago mi parte
   c. me distraigo junto con él/ ella
   d. le informo a mi profesor

6. Al momento de desarrollar el trabajo grupal, mis compañeros y yo:
   a. nos apegamos fielmente a las instrucciones de la actividad
   b. modificamos algunas instrucciones de la actividad si vale la pena hacerlo

7. Se me facilita trabajar con personas distintas a mi habitual grupo de trabajo:
   a. siempre
   b. casi siempre
   c. a veces

¡Muchas gracias por tu amable colaboración!

d. nuna